Australian Bureau of Statistics

AUSTRALIAN SOCIAL TRENDS 1996

Symbols and usages

The following symbols used in tables mean:

na	not available
nya	not yet available
..	not applicable
—	nil or rounded to zero
p	preliminary — figures or series subject to revision
*	subject to high sampling variability
* *	data suppressed due to unacceptably high sampling variability
r	figures or series revised since previous edition

Where figures have been rounded, discrepancies may occur between the sums of the component items and totals.

Inquiries about these statistics

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Contents

Preface

This is the third edition of the annual series **AUSTRALIAN SOCIAL TRENDS** which examines social issues and monitors social change. It is a key part of the information services provided by the Australian Bureau of Statistics and is designed to assist and encourage informed decision-making, research and discussion within governments and the community.

AUSTRALIAN SOCIAL TRENDS is more than a compendium of social statistics. It uses the statistics to analyse current social issues in Australia. Bringing them together in one book highlights the connections and relationships between them. Over time **AUSTRALIAN SOCIAL TRENDS** provides a detailed analysis of the complex fabric of social change.

Two major themes in **AUSTRALIAN SOCIAL TRENDS 1996** are Australia's international standing and the social well-being of Indigenous Australians. In addition to the usual array of international comparisons throughout the publication, the review *Expanding links with Asia*, looks specifically at Australia's integration with, and growing role in, the Asia-Pacific region. The social well-being of Indigenous people is the subject of six reviews covering health, health risk factors, education, work, income, and housing. This year the special feature is transport, presented in a series of four reviews. These reviews cover issues such as access to transport, patterns of transport use and motor vehicle accidents.

I wish to acknowledge the external contributions of Mike Giles, the Ford Motor Company of Australia Ltd, the Health Insurance Commission, the Department of Industrial Relations, the Department of Immigration and Ethnic Affairs and the Department of Veteran's Affairs.

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Australian Bureau of Statistics
Canberra ACT
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AUSTRALIAN
SOCIAL TRENDS
1996

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319.4

Population

Population — national summary

COMPOSITION	Units	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994(a)	1995(a)
Total population	'000	15 788	16 018	16 264	16 532	16 814	17 065	17 284	r17 489	17 656	r17 838	p18 054
Male population	'000	7 883	8 000	8 118	8 249	8 388	8 511	8 615	r8 715	8 796	r8 885	p8 990
Female population	'000	7 906	8 018	8 146	8 283	8 427	8 554	8 669	r8 774	8 861	r8 954	p9 064
Median age	years	30.8	31.1	31.3	31.6	31.8	32.1	32.4	32.7	33.0	33.4	p33.7
Proportion of population aged 0–14	%	23.6	23.1	22.7	22.4	22.2	22.0	21.9	21.8	21.7	21.5	p21.4
Proportion of population aged 65 and over	%	10.3	10.5	10.7	10.8	11.0	11.1	11.3	11.5	11.7	11.8	p11.9
Overseas born (of population)	%	21.1	21.2	21.5	22.0	22.4	22.8	22.9	23.0	22.8	r22.8	p22.8
Born in non-English speaking countries (of population)	%	11.7	11.8	12.1	12.4	12.8	13.1	13.3	13.5	13.5	13.6	p13.7
Living in capital cities (of population)	%	63.5	63.8	63.9	63.9	63.8	63.7	63.6	r63.5	r63.3	63.2	p63.1

GROWTH	Units	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
Growth rate	%	1.34	1.46	1.53	1.65	1.71	1.49	1.28	1.19	0.96	r1.03	p1.21
Net overseas migration rate	%	0.47	0.64	0.78	0.92	0.95	0.74	0.51	0.40	0.17	r0.26	p0.47
Rate of natural increase	%	0.82	0.78	0.79	0.77	0.79	0.79	0.83	0.79	0.78	r0.75	p0.74
Net reproduction rate	no.	0.91	0.90	0.88	0.88	0.88	0.91	0.89	0.91	0.90	0.88	nya
Crude birth rate (per 1,000 population)	no.	15.4	15.2	15.0	14.9	14.9	15.4	14.9	15.1	14.7	14.5	nya
Crude death rate (per 1,000 population)	no.	7.4	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.4	7.0	6.9	7.1	6.9	7.1	nya
Permanent and long-term arrivals	'000	163.3	186.4	204.5	242.3	249.9	231.9	236.4	234.2	203.8	207.4	238.5
Refugee arrivals	'000	14.9	11.8	11.1	11.1	10.9	11.9	7.7	7.2	10.9	11.4	13.6
Permanent and long-term departures	'000	95.3	92.5	95.3	99.0	112.6	128.1	141.6	144.3	141.1	140.0	145.5

PROJECTIONS-SERIES A	Units	1996	2001	2006	2011	2016	2021	2026	2031	2036	2041
Total population	'000	18 208	19 170	20 096	20 952	21 760	22 528	23 241	23 874	24 410	24 858
Male population	'000	9 065	9 538	9 990	10 405	10 791	11 153	11 482	11 768	12 007	12 210
Female population	'000	9 143	9 632	10 105	10 547	10 969	11 375	11 759	12 106	12 403	12 648
Median age	years	34.0	35.4	36.6	38.0	39.0	39.7	40.4	40.9	41.4	41.8
Proportion of population aged 0–14	%	21.4	20.7	20.1	19.3	18.6	18.1	17.9	17.7	17.5	17.3
Proportion of population aged 65 and over	%	12.1	12.3	12.8	13.8	15.6	17.3	19.0	20.3	21.3	22.0
5-year average growth rate	%	1.05	1.03	0.95	0.84	0.76	0.70	0.63	0.54	0.45	0.36

(a) Includes Christmas and Cocos Islands.

Reference periods: Population estimates and projections are at 30 June. Population growth figures (except birth, death and net reproduction rates) are for the year ended 30 June.

Population — state summary

COMPOSITION	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Total population	'000	1995p	6 115	4 502	3 277	1 474	1 732	473	174	304	18 054
Male population	'000	1995p	3 039	2 229	1 643	732	870	235	89	153	8 990
Female population	'000	1995p	3 076	2 273	1 635	742	862	238	84	151	9 064
Median age	years	1995p	34.1	33.9	33.0	35.1	32.9	34.1	28.3	30.7	33.7
Proportion of population aged 0–14	%	1995p	21.2	20.9	22.0	20.4	22.3	22.4	27.7	21.8	21.4
Proportion of population aged 65 and over	%	1995p	12.5	12.3	11.3	13.7	10.4	12.6	3.2	7.0	11.9
Overseas born (of population)	%	1991	23.1	24.4	16.8	22.5	29.3	10.7	18.1	23.6	22.9
Born in non-English speaking countries (of population)	%	1991	15.2	16.9	6.9	10.8	12.0	4.0	9.3	14.1	13.3
Living in capital city (of population)	%	1995p	61.7	71.5	45.4	73.3	72.9	41.2	45.5	99.9	63.1

GROWTH	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Growth rate	%	1994–95p	1.09	0.59	2.54	0.31	1.80	0.12	1.64	1.08	1.21
Net overseas migration rate	%	1994–95p	0.61	0.45	0.34	0.21	0.64	0.08	0.27	0.09	0.47
Net interstate migration rate	%	1994–95p	-0.25	-0.56	1.40	-0.44	0.29	-0.57	-0.20	-0.06	..
Rate of natural increase	%	1994–95p	0.72	0.70	0.80	0.55	0.87	0.61	1.57	1.05	0.74
Net reproduction rate	no.	1994	0.90	0.86	0.88	0.83	0.90	0.94	1.12	0.85	0.88
Crude birth rate (per 1,000 population)	no.	1994	14.5	14.4	14.5	13.3	14.8	14.5	21.1	16.0	14.5
Crude death rate (per 1,000 population)	no.	1994	7.4	7.2	6.8	8.0	6.1	8.3	4.5	4.4	7.1
Permanent and long-term overseas arrivals	'000	1994–95	99.0	54.8	35.5	10.8	27.9	2.2	2.0	6.3	238.5
Refugee arrivals	'000	1994–95	5.7	4.5	0.9	0.7	1.4	0.1	0.1	0.1	13.6
Interstate arrivals	'000	1994–95	87.1	53.4	114.9	24.7	31.7	10.1	18.0	19.1	..
Permanent and long-term departures	'000	1994–95	57.9	32.3	23.2	7.3	15.9	1.7	1.4	5.8	145.5
Interstate departures	'000	1994–95	102.0	78.4	70.1	31.2	26.8	12.9	18.4	19.3	..

PROJECTIONS-SERIES A	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Total population	'000	2041	7 941	5 282	5 854	1 622	2 786	538	295	540	24 858
Male population	'000	2041	3 896	2 558	2 903	799	1 367	266	151	270	12 210
Female population	'000	2041	4 045	2 724	2 951	823	1 419	272	144	270	12 648
Median age	years	2041	41.7	42.6	41.2	44.8	41.0	45.0	34.8	39.1	41.8
Proportion of population aged 0–14	%	2041	17.6	16.8	17.6	15.5	17.7	16.4	21.6	17.5	17.3
Proportion of population aged 65 and over	%	2041	22.2	23.3	21.0	25.0	20.8	25.0	13.9	18.6	22.0

Reference periods: Population estimates (except overseas born and born in non-English speaking countries which are Census based) and projections are for 30 June.

Population — definitions and references

Crude birth rate — number of live births registered during the calendar year per 1,000 of the estimated resident population at 30 June of that year. For years prior to 1994, it is based on the mean estimated resident population for the calendar year.
Reference: Births, Australia (3301.0)

Crude death rate — number of deaths registered during the calendar year per 1,000 of the estimated resident population at 30 June of that year. For years prior to 1994, it is based on the mean estimated resident population for the calendar year.
Reference: Deaths, Australia (3302.0)

Growth rate — change in the population during the year expressed as a proportion (per cent) of the population at the beginning of the year.
Reference: Australian Demographic Statistics (3101.0)

Interstate arrivals — arrivals from other states or territories of Australia who intend to stay permanently.
Reference: Australian Demographic Statistics (3101.0)

Interstate departures — permanent departures to other states or territories of Australia.
Reference: Australian Demographic Statistics (3101.0)

Long-term arrivals — visitors arriving from overseas who intend to stay in Australia for one year or more and Australian residents returning from an overseas visit of one year or more.
Reference: Overseas Arrivals and Departures, Australia (3401.0)

Long-term departures — departures of Australian residents who intend to stay temporarily overseas for one year or more and departures of visitors who had stayed in Australia for one year or more.
Reference: Overseas Arrivals and Departures, Australia (3401.0)

Median age — the age at which half the population is older and half is younger.
Reference: Estimated Resident Population by Sex and Age: States and Territories of Australia (3201.0)

Net interstate migration rate — interstate arrivals minus interstate departures during the year, expressed as a proportion (per cent) of the population at the beginning of the year.
Reference: Australian Demographic Statistics (3101.0)

Net overseas migration rate — permanent and long-term arrivals (including refugees) minus permanent and long-term departures during the year expressed as a proportion (per cent) of the population at the beginning of the year.
Reference: Australian Demographic Statistics (3101.0)

Net reproduction rate — the number of daughters that a group newborn girls would bear during their lifetime, if the age-specific birth and death rates recorded in the year of their birth continue.
Reference: Australian Demographic Statistics (3101.0)

Non-English speaking countries — all overseas countries except United Kingdom, Ireland, New Zealand, South Africa, Canada and the United States of America.
Reference: Migration, Australia (3412.0)

Permanent arrivals — persons arriving from overseas with the intention of settling permanently in Australia. It includes those with migrant visas (regardless of stated intended period of stay), New Zealand citizens who indicate an intention to settle, and those who are otherwise eligible to settle, eg overseas born children of Australian citizens.
Reference: Overseas Arrivals and Departures, Australia (3401.0)

Permanent departures — Australian residents, including former settlers, who on departure state that they do not intend to return to Australia.
Reference: Overseas Arrivals and Departures, Australia (3401.0)

Population projections — the ABS population projections take the base year population for each sex by single years of age and advance it year by year by applying assumptions about future mortality and migration. Assumed age-specific fertility rates are applied to the female populations of childbearing ages to provide the estimates of new births for each year. This procedure is repeated for each year in the projection period for each state and territory and for Australia. The ABS produces several series of population projections based on different combinations of assumptions about mortality, fertility and migration. The assumptions underlying Series A most closely reflect prevailing trends and comprise: declining rates of mortality; a constant level of fertility (total fertility rate of 1.88 for Australia); low levels of overseas migration (rising to 70,000 per year by the year 2000 then remaining constant); and continuing high levels of interstate migration.
Reference: Projections of the Populations of Australia, States and Territories, 1993 to 2041 (3222.0)

Rate of natural increase — the excess of births over deaths during the year expressed as a proportion (per cent) of the population at the beginning of the year.
Reference: Australian Demographic Statistics (3101.0)

Refugee arrivals — comprises: those who arrive under the refugee program (which provides protection for people who have fled their country because of persecution); those who arrive under the humanitarian programs (those who leave their country because of significant discrimination amounting to gross violation of human rights); and those who arrive under the special assistance category (groups determined by the minister to be of special concern to Australia and in real need but who do not come under the traditional humanitarian categories. It includes those externally displaced people who have close family links with Australia).
Reference: Bureau of Immigration and Population Research *Australian Immigration Consolidated Statistics*

Australian citizenship

COMPOSITION

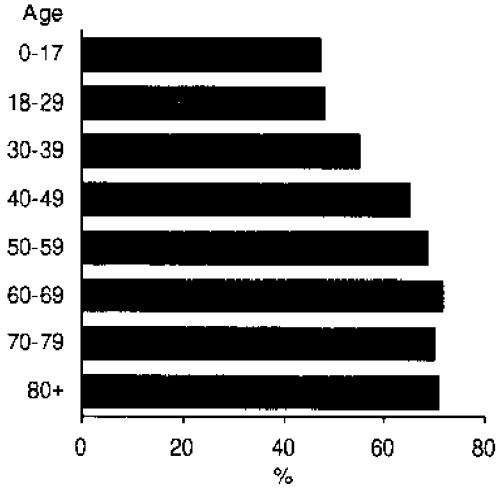
In 1991, 60% of overseas born residents were Australian citizens. People from non-English speaking countries were more likely than those from English speaking countries to have become citizens.

The concept of Australian citizenship is less than 50 years old. Prior to the *Nationality and Citizenship Act 1948* (since renamed the *Australian Citizenship Act 1948*) coming into effect on Australia Day 1949, Australians were simply British subjects. Between that day and 31 December 1995, 2.8 million grants of citizenship had been made.

In the lead up to the 50th anniversary of the Act and to the centenary of Federation in 2001, Australians are beginning to focus on what it means to be Australian. In 1994 the Joint Standing Committee on Migration reported on the inquiry into the *Australian Citizenship Act 1948*. In the foreword to the report, the Committee stated 'Citizenship is the cornerstone of national identity. It defines an individual's legal relationship with Australia, and signals an individual's membership of the Australian community... citizenship represents an individual's commitment to Australia, including the principles on which Australian society is based.'[1]

Most people born in Australia are automatically citizens and most people born overseas have to apply to become citizens[1]. For this reason, the citizenship rates presented in this review exclude people born in Australia. In 1991, 60% of Australia's 3.7 million overseas born residents reported that they were Australian citizens.

Citizenship rates by age, 1991



Source: *Census of Population and Housing* (unpublished data)

Grants of citizenship

To be granted Australian citizenship an applicant must meet certain criteria under Section 13(1) of the *Australian Citizenship Act 1948*. The applicant must:

- be a permanent resident of Australia;
- be 18 years or older (children under 16 may be included in a parent's application);
- have been a permanent resident of Australia for a period of, or for periods amounting to, not less than one year in the preceding two, and not less than two years in the preceding five;
- be of good character;
- possess a basic knowledge of English (unless the applicant is 50 years or older, or has permanent difficulties with hearing, speech or sight, or suffers permanent physical or mental incapacity);
- have an adequate knowledge of the responsibilities and privileges of Australian citizenship (unless the applicant is 60 years or older, or has permanent difficulties with hearing, speech or sight, or suffers permanent physical or mental incapacity);
- be likely to reside, or continue to reside, in Australia, or maintain a close and continuing association with Australia.

The rights of citizenship

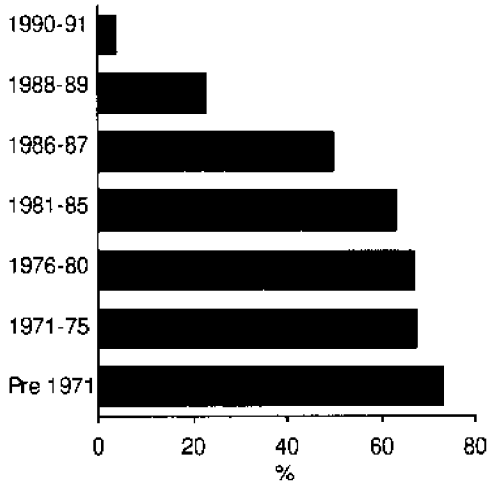
Possession of Australian citizenship whether by birth, adoption, descent or through a grant of citizenship (naturalisation) entitles a person to certain rights not enjoyed by non-citizens, regardless of residency status.

Citizens are eligible to enrol to vote and obliged to vote in elections and referendums. Only citizens can be elected to public office. Citizens have the right to enter, to stay and to leave Australia (unless there is court order preventing departure because of criminal, bankruptcy or family law proceedings). Citizens are entitled to seek diplomatic protection from Australian embassies and consulates overseas. Only citizens are eligible to serve on juries, to serve in the defence forces, or to gain permanent employment in the Australian Public Service.

Citizenship rates

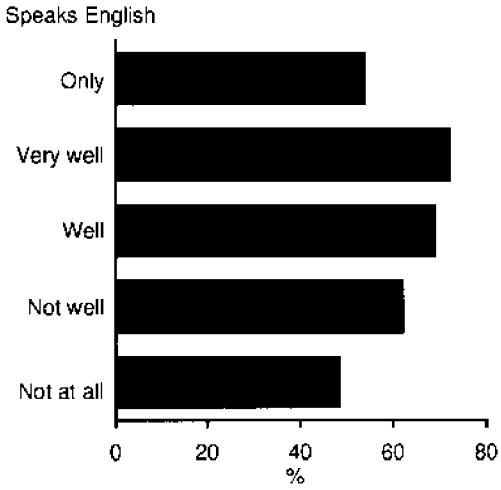
The *citizenship rate* is the number of overseas born residents in a group who reported that they were Australian citizens divided by the total number of overseas born residents in that group who reported their citizenship. Because different groups of overseas born residents have different age and period of residence (which impact on their eligibility for a grant of citizenship), *standardised citizenship rates* which take account of these differences are also presented.

Citizenship rates by year of arrival, 1991



Source: *Census of Population and Housing* (unpublished data)

Citizenship rates by proficiency in English, 1991



Source: *Census of Population and Housing* (unpublished data)

Age and year of arrival

Citizenship rates increase with age, particularly among those under the age of 50, and with period of residence, particularly among those who arrived before 1985. In 1991, 70% of people aged 50 or more were citizens compared to 48% of those aged 18–29 and 55% of those aged 30–39. Similarly, 70% of people who had arrived before 1985 were citizens compared to 50% of those who had arrived in 1986–87 and 23% of those who had arrived in 1988–89.

Most settlers are aged 15–34 on arrival (see Australian Social Trends 1995 pp. 11–15 *Net overseas migration*) and therefore age and year of arrival are strongly related. In 1993, 54% of settler arrivals were aged 15–34 and their median age was 28. In 1991, the median age of people who had arrived before 1971 was 53 compared to 27 for those who had arrived in 1990–91. Among people aged 50 and over who had arrived before 1985, the citizenship rate was 73%.

Ability to speak English

Citizenship rates also vary by ability to speak English because of the language criterion attached to a grant of citizenship. Among overseas born people who spoke a language other than English at home citizenship rates increased as their ability to speak English increased, from 48% of people who did not speak English at all to 72% of those who spoke English very well. Among overseas born people who only spoke English at home, and therefore may be assumed to speak English fluently, the citizenship rate was 54%, well below the average. This reflects the generally low citizenship rates of people born in the main English speaking countries.

Eligibility for grant of citizenship

While the census does not seek direct information on eligibility for a grant of citizenship, eligibility against the age, residency and language criteria can be approximated. Taking these into account increases the citizenship rate. Among those

Citizenship rates, 1991

Characteristics	Males	Females	Persons
	%	%	%
Aged 18 and over	62.3	61.0	61.7
Aged 0–17	47.5	47.4	47.4
Arrived before 1988	69.2	68.4	68.8
Arrived in 1988–91	13.6	13.6	13.6
Speaks English	61.2	60.0	60.6
Does not speak English	43.8	50.6	48.3
Total	**60.9**	**59.8**	**60.3**

Source: *Census of Population and Housing* (unpublished data)

who spoke at least some English (language criterion), the citizenship rate was 61%. Among those aged 18 or more (age criterion), the citizenship rate was 62%. Among those who had arrived before 1988 (residency criterion) the citizenship rate was 69%. When all three criteria were taken together, the citizenship rate was 69%.

Overall, the male citizenship rate was marginally higher than the female rate (61% compared to 60%). This was true in all cases except for those who did not speak English. For this group, the female citizenship rate was much higher than the male rate. This is related to the relatively large numbers of women in older age groups, which have higher citizenship rates than younger ones.

Country of birth — main English speaking countries

With the exception of people born in South Africa, the citizenship rates of people born in the main English speaking countries were very low. Overall, in 1991, 46% of people born in the main English speaking countries were citizens. The citizenship rates for people born in the UK, Ireland or Canada were similar to this. People born in New Zealand or USA had very low citizenship rates, 24% and 27% respectively, while for people born in South Africa, the citizenship rate was very high at 73%.

When the citizenship rates were standardised for age and year of arrival, the rates for people born in the UK declined while those for people born in the other countries increased. This reflects the different settlement patterns of the two groups. UK has been a major source of migrants for the past two hundred years while the other countries have only recently become significant sources of settlers (see Australian Social Trends 1994 pp.9–12 *Birthplaces of Australia's settlers*). The most common explanation advanced for the generally low citizenship rates of people with an English speaking background is that '...the shared language, and strongly similar legal, political, and industrial relations arrangements of Australia and the other Anglo-American countries lead these immigrants to feel less need to make a choice of national identity.'[2]

Country of birth — non-English speaking countries

The citizenship rate for people born in non-English speaking countries was 71% but there was considerable variation between countries. Of the top ten non-English speaking countries of birth, the citizenship rates varied from 45% for the Malaysian born to 94% for the Greek born. When standardised for age and year of arrival these rates changed to 65% and 81% respectively. Similarly, all of the standardised citizenship

Citizenship rates of people born in main English speaking countries, 1991

Country of birth	Persons	Citizenship rate	Standardised citizenship rate(a)	Arrived before 1981
	'000	%	%	%
United Kingdom	*1 122.4*	*50.4*	*46.5*	*81.0*
England	909.0	51.4	47.6	80.9
Scotland	156.7	45.8	40.8	82.6
Wales	28.0	48.6	45.3	77.3
Northern Ireland	25.0	45.7	41.9	80.7
Other United Kingdom	3.8	46.1	43.0	73.9
New Zealand	276.1	23.9	34.4	43.9
Republic of Ireland	52.5	45.3	45.8	65.5
USA	50.6	26.8	33.3	44.7
South Africa	49.4	73.3	76.3	44.5
Canada	24.2	47.0	49.8	54.5
Total	**1 575.0**	**45.5**	**44.0**	**71.3**

(a) Standardised to the age and year of arrival distribution of all overseas born residents.

Source: *Census of Population and Housing* (unpublished data)

Citizenship rates of people born in non-English speaking countries, 1991

Country of birth	Persons	Citizenship rate	Standardised citizenship rate(a)	Arrived before 1981
	'000	%	%	%
Italy	254.8	76.9	54.5	97.1
Former Yugoslavia	161.1	89.2	80.0	87.1
Greece	136.3	93.9	81.3	95.3
Viet Nam	122.3	71.4	78.0	27.3
Germany	115.0	73.2	58.6	84.3
Netherlands	95.8	75.3	55.8	90.7
China	78.8	49.0	75.8	28.9
Philippines	73.7	67.3	81.6	18.4
Malaysia	72.6	44.7	65.5	35.0
Lebanon	69.0	87.9	87.2	66.7
Total	**2 180.3**	**71.2**	**72.5**	**65.1**

(a) Standardised to the age and year of arrival distribution of all overseas born residents.

Source: *Census of Population and Housing* (unpublished data)

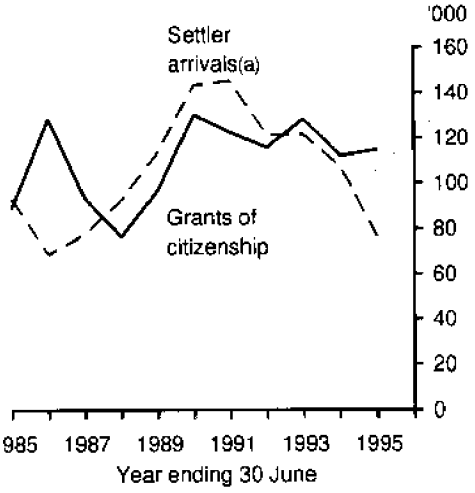
rates, except that for Lebanon, were quite different from the unstandardised rates. For people born in Italy, Germany or the Netherlands, the standardised rates were considerably lower than the unstandardised rates suggesting that their high citizenship rates are largely attributable to the age and year of arrival characteristics of these groups. The small proportions of recent arrivals from these countries have very low citizenship rates. In contrast, for people born in China, the Philippines and Malaysia, the standardised citizenship rates were considerably higher than the unstandardised rates. While their relatively recent arrival profiles contribute to their low citizenship rates they are highly likely to be granted citizenship as their period of residence in Australia increases. The slightly lower standardised rate for the Malaysian born is partly due to the high proportion of this group who are studying in Australia, and therefore qualify as residents, but who are unlikely to become citizens (see Australian Social Trends 1995 pp. 75–77 *Overseas students in higher education*).

Grants of Australian citizenship

The annual number of grants of citizenship varies, reflecting both the number of settler arrivals two years previously and government initiatives to encourage citizenship applications. The peak in 1985–86 reflects the reduction in the eligibility period from three years to two in November 1984 while the high figures in the early 1990s resulted partly from interest generated by the Australian Bicentennial in 1988 and the Year of Citizenship in 1988–89.

Of citizenship grants made since 1970, about one-third have been to former citizens of UK and Ireland. The other major countries of former citizenship have varied reflecting the

Grants of Australian citizenship



(a) Lagged by two years.

Source: Bureau of Immigration, Multicultural and Population Research *Australian Immigration Consolidated Statistics; Overseas Arrivals and Departures, Australia* (3404.0)

Grants of Australian citizenship by country of former citizenship(a)

Country	1970–75		Country	1980–85		Country	1990–95	
	'000	%		'000	%		'000	%
UK & Ireland	80.8	29.4	UK & Ireland	142.9	34.5	UK & Ireland	200.8	33.8
Greece	40.7	14.8	Former Yugoslavia	31.6	7.6	Viet Nam	44.3	7.5
Italy	24.0	8.7	Viet Nam	29.7	7.2	New Zealand	40.9	6.9
Former Yugoslavia	20.6	7.5	Italy	21.5	5.2	Philippines	36.1	6.1
Lebanon	11.3	4.1	Greece	15.6	3.8	China	24.9	4.2
India	11.3	4.1	Lebanon	15.6	3.8	Former Yugoslavia	17.8	3.0
All countries	**274.6**	**100.0**	**All countries**	**413.8**	**100.0**	**All countries**	**593.7**	**100.0**

(a) Countries specified represent the top six in terms of grants of citizenship for each period.

Source: Bureau of Immigration, Multicultural and Population Research *Australian Immigration Consolidated Statistics* and *Immigration Update*

changing mix of source countries of immigration (see Australian Social Trends 1994 pp.9–12 *Birthplaces of Australia's settlers*). The UK and Ireland have also consistently been the largest source of new Australian citizens since the early 1970s. However, this was not always the case. In 1949–65, only 4% of citizenship grants were made to former citizens of UK and Ireland. Former Italian citizens made up 21% of new citizens in that period, followed by former citizens of the Netherlands (13%), USSR and Baltic States and Poland (both 12%). In the late 1960s former citizens of UK and Ireland increased their take-up of Australian citizenship and represented 10% of grants of citizenship in 1965–70, third after former Italian citizens (21%) and former Greek citizens (13%).

Endnotes

1 Joint Standing Committee on Migration (1994) *Australians All – Enhancing Australian Citizenship* AGPS, Canberra.

2 Evans, M. (1988) *Choosing to be a citizen: the time-path of citizenship in Australia* International Migration Review, vol. 22, no. 2.

Expanding links with Asia

COMPOSITION

Australia's international outlook has changed in the past decade. Increasingly the focus is on Asia.

Over the past decade Australian involvement with, and focus on, Asia has increased. This has been a gradual change although the rate of change has varied for different sectors of Australian society.

55% of the world's population lives in Asia and there are many diverse cultures and economies. It is also a region experiencing rapid economic growth with a 31% increase in its share of the world's trade in the last decade.

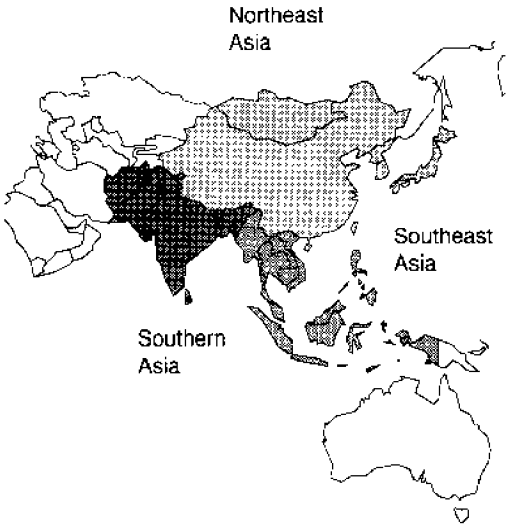
International trade between Australia and Asia has increased and the region now includes some of our largest trading partners. Cultural links have been fostered through the sister-city programs between many Asian and Australian towns. Cultural links have also increased as many Australians were born in Asia or have families originating from this region. Educational links have increased as many Asian students come to further their education in Australia. Business links have increased due to substantially increased investment by Australian and Asian businesses in each others' countries.

Overseas born by country of birth

Selected countries of birth	At 30 June 1985	1995p
	%	%
Asia	*11.7*	*21.0*
Viet Nam	2.4	3.6
China	1.1	2.2
Philippines	0.9	2.2
Malaysia	1.4	2.2
Hong Kong & Macau	0.8	2.2
India	1.5	1.9
Sri Lanka	0.7	1.1
Indonesia	0.7	1.0
Singapore	0.5	0.9
Other	1.9	3.6
Total overseas born	**100.0**	**100.0**
	'000	'000
Total overseas born	**3 325.6**	**4 122.3**

Source: *Migration, Australia* (3412.0)

Where in the world is Asia?



Classification of Asia

The *Australian Standard Classification of Countries for Social Statistics (ASCCSS)* (1269.0) classifies countries into three Asian regions. *Southeast Asia* consists of Brunei, Cambodia, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Myanmar (Burma), Philippines, Singapore, Thailand and Viet Nam. *Northeast Asia* consists of China, Hong Kong, Japan, Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Republic of Korea, Macau, Mongolia and Taiwan. *Southern Asia* consists of Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan and Sri Lanka.

The *Association of South-East Asian Nations (ASEAN)* consists of Brunei, Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore, Thailand and, since July 1995, Viet Nam. It was founded in 1967 to foster economic co-operation between the member countries.

The *Asia Pacific Economic Co-operation (APEC)* consists of Australia, Brunei, Canada, Chile, China, Hong Kong, Indonesia, Japan, Republic of Korea, Malaysia, Mexico, New Zealand, Papua New Guinea, the Philippines, Singapore, Taiwan, Thailand and USA. APEC was formed in 1989 out of the Pacific Economic Co-operation Council (PECC). One of APEC's major goals is to develop free trade in the region.

Birthplace of settler arrivals

Birthplace	1975	1980	1985	1987	1989	1991	1993	1995
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Southeast Asia	*8.6*	*22.4*	*21.3*	*21.2*	*22.7*	*21.6*	*20.4*	*15.0*
Viet Nam	2.1	13.2	8.9	4.9	7.7	9.1	8.6	4.8
Philippines	2.0	2.7	4.6	7.0	5.3	5.6	5.7	3.9
Malaysia	2.1	1.9	2.9	4.0	5.3	3.8	2.0	1.1
Northeast Asia	*2.9*	*2.9*	*9.2*	*8.4*	*12.4*	*20.1*	*13.1*	*14.7*
China	1.1	1.5	3.9	2.4	2.6	2.9	3.9	7.6
Hong Kong	1.4	0.8	3.6	3.3	5.6	12.4	5.8	4.6
Southern Asia	*3.7*	*1.5*	*5.2*	*5.2*	*4.4*	*9.1*	*7.5*	*8.7*
India	2.4	0.9	2.5	2.2	2.3	5.0	3.8	4.4
Total Asia	**15.2**	**26.7**	**35.7**	**34.8**	**39.5**	**50.9**	**40.9**	**38.5**

Source: *Overseas Arrivals and Departures* (unpublished data)

Population

In 1995 there were 866,000 Asian born Australians. They accounted for 21% of the overseas born population, and 5% of the total population. In 1985 Asian born Australians represented 12% of the overseas born population and 2% of the total population.

In 1995, the largest single Asian country of birth group, with 4% of the overseas born, was Viet Nam. In addition, just over 2% of overseas born Australians were from each of China, Philippines, Malaysia, and Hong Kong and Macau.

Settler arrivals

The number of settler arrivals varies with the economic and political situations in the countries of origin as well as on the situation in Australia (see Australian Social Trends 1994 pp. 9–12 *Birthplaces of Australia's settlers*). In 1995, 38% of settlers arriving in Australia (37,300) had been born in an Asian country. This represented a drop from the peak of 51% in 1991 but is still higher than at any time prior to the 1980s. In 1975, 15% of settlers had been born in Asia (8,200).

In 1995, 15% of settlers had been born in Southeast Asia, including 5% in Viet Nam. Vietnamese immigration to Australia has been in two waves with the initial flow in the late 1970s and early 1980s and a second wave in the early 1990s. The proportion of settlers from China increased from 1% in 1975 to 8% in 1995.

In addition to the 37,300 settler arrivals, in 1995 there were 45,500 long-term visitor arrivals of people born in Asian countries. These are people who visit Australia intending to stay for 12 months or more. Many of these came to Australia to study.

Overseas students in higher education

Overseas students are those who normally reside overseas and enter Australia on student visas to attend formal courses. In 1993, 42,600 overseas students were enrolled in higher education courses. Nine of the ten largest source countries of these overseas students were Asian (see Australian Social Trends 1995 pp. 75–77 *Overseas students in higher education*). In 1994 this pattern continued with the largest source countries being Hong Kong and Malaysia (both 17% of overseas students) and Singapore (15%). Asian overseas students accounted for 72% of overseas students in Australia.

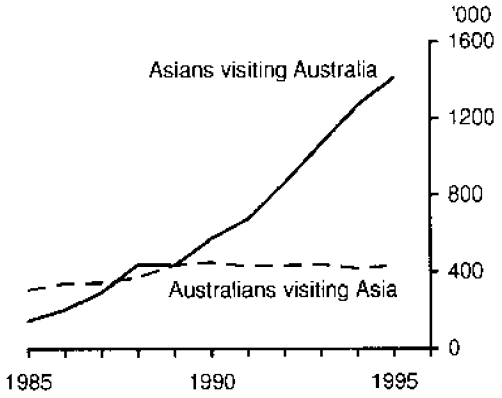
Australians moving to Asia

In 1995, 4,700 people left Australia permanently to take up residence in Asia. 48% of these were people who had come to Australia with the intention of settling. A further 19,700 Australian residents left Australia for Asian countries intending to stay overseas for 12 months or more. Overall, Asian destinations accounted for 25% of all permanent and long-term departures of residents. The most common Asian destinations were Hong Kong (7%), Singapore (3%) and Malaysia (3%).

Asians visiting Australia

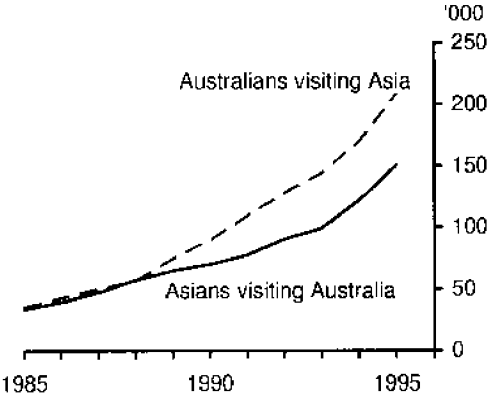
In 1995, 3.7 million people visited Australia for a period of less than 12 months

Short-term visits for holidays



Source: *Overseas Arrivals and Departures* (unpublished data)

Short-term visits to see family and friends



Source: *Overseas Arrivals and Departures* (unpublished data)

(short-term visits). 50% of them were residents of Asian countries. In comparison, residents of Asian countries accounted for 23% of all short-term visits to Australia in 1985.

In 1995, 1.4 million (75%) short-term visits to Australia by Asian residents were for holidays. This was considerably higher than the proportion of other short-term visitors coming to Australia for holidays (46%). 8% (150,000) of Asian visitors came to visit friends or relations compared to 30% of all other visitors. This difference is largely due to the smaller population of Asian migrants and second generation Asian-Australians.

Many short-term visitors to Australia came from Japan. In 1995 residents from this one country alone accounted for 21% of all short-term visitors. Ten years earlier, Japanese visitors had accounted for 9% of short-term isitors. 89% of Japanese visitors in 1995 came for a holiday.

More Japanese residents (783,000) visited Australia than residents of any other country in 1995. This was more than seven times the number who had visited in 1985. In addition, 202,000 Singapore residents came to Australia as short-term visitors as well as between 130,000 and 160,000 residents of each of Taiwan, South Korea, Indonesia and Hong Kong. The numbers of visitors from South Korea and Taiwan in particular have increased considerably. In 1985 they each accounted for less than 10,000 visitors.

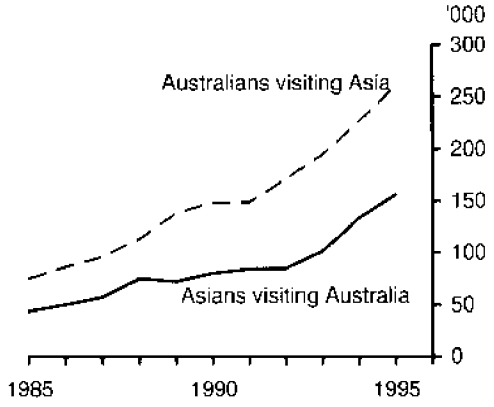
Main reason for short-term visits overseas by Australian residents, 1995

Main destination	Holiday	Visit friends/ relatives	Business	Convention/ conference	Employment	Total(a)	Total(a)
	%	%	%	%	%	%	'000
Asia	*45.7*	*22.2*	*21.3*	*3.0*	*3.4*	*100.0*	*938.9*
Indonesia	73.7	5.4	12.3	2.7	2.6	100.0	222.2
Hong Kong	38.0	23.4	26.7	2.9	4.7	100.0	156.9
Singapore	40.2	16.5	29.0	4.8	5.2	100.0	95.0
Malaysia	38.5	25.6	24.5	3.1	3.8	100.0	88.6
Thailand	63.6	11.1	16.4	3.3	2.3	100.0	75.3
Philippines	33.1	45.6	14.5	2.1	0.9	100.0	51.5
Viet Nam	19.0	61.1	14.0	0.6	2.7	100.0	40.6
World	**45.3**	**25.6**	**17.4**	**4.0**	**2.9**	**100.0**	**2 518.6**

(a) Includes other reasons.

Source: *Overseas Arrivals and Departures* (unpublished data)

Short-term visits for business(a) and employment



(a) Includes visits for conferences and conventions.

Source: *Overseas arrivals and departures* (unpublished data)

Australians visiting Asia

In 1995, 939,000 Australians travelled to Asia for short-term visits. This had increased from 445,000 in 1985. The numbers of Australians visiting Asia for holidays have been fairly stable over the last ten years. In comparison the numbers of those visiting relatives and friends and those making short-term business, employment or convention trips have increased.

In 1995 Indonesia was the most popular destination in Asia, accounting for 9% of all short-term trips overseas and 24% of short-term trips to Asia. Australians were more likely to go on holidays to Indonesia than to any other Asian country. 74% of all short-term trips to Indonesia were for holidays.

The number of short-term trips made to visit friends and relatives in Asia has increased over the last decade in line with increased immigration from the region. 61% (24,800) of trips to Viet Nam in 1995 were for this reason as were 46% (23,500) of trips to the Philippines.

Business trips have also increased, with 259,000 Australian residents visiting Asia for business and employment purposes in 1995. 200,000 of these were for business alone, up from 58,600 in 1985. These trips represented 21% of all short-term trips to Asia in 1995 and 13% in 1985. In comparison, 17% of world-wide trips in 1995 and 12% in 1985 were for business. The increasing number of business trips to Asia reflects Australia's stronger economic ties with the region.

International investment

At 30 June 1994, Australia had $130 billion invested overseas, and other countries had $370 billion invested in Australia. This had increased from $201 billion in 1988. Despite

Australia's international investment position

	Foreign investment in Australia		Australian investment abroad	
Selected countries	At 30 June 1988	At 30 June 1994	At 30 June 1988	At 30 June 1994
	%	%	%	%
ASEAN	*4.1*	*2.5*	*2.1*	*5.1*
Indonesia	* *	0.1	0.1	0.5
Malaysia	0.2	0.3	0.2	1.6
Singapore	3.4	2.1	1.5	2.4
China	* *	0.6	* *	0.2
Hong Kong	2.4	3.9	2.8	2.7
Japan	14.9	13.2	4.5	8.2
Korea, Republic of	* *	0.1	* *	0.5
Total Asia	**21.5**	**20.4**	**9.5**	**17.0**
USA	20.2	23.0	27.9	24.2
UK	22.0	20.1	17.5	19.5
	$million	$ million	$million	$ million
World	**200 792**	**370 262**	**74 619**	**130 181**

Source: *Balance of Payments and International Investment Position* (5363.0)

the fall in Asia's share of international investment in Australia, from 22% to 20%, there was an overall increase in the amount of Asia's investment in Australia from $43 billion to $76 billion. Asia's share of Australia's international investment increased from 9% to 17% ($7 billion to $22 billion) over the same period.

Much of Australia's investment interest is still in the UK and the USA. The proportions of Australian investment in these countries were 20% and 24% respectively at 30 June 1994. Correspondingly these countries were also the largest investors in Australia.

Japan was Australia's largest Asian investor holding 13% of overseas investments in Australia at 30 June 1994. However Japan's share of overseas investment in Australia has been decreasing since a high of 18% at 30 June 1990. Australia's investment in Japan continues to rise. At 30 June 1994, 8% of all Australian investments abroad were in Japan.

International trade in goods

In 1994–95, 63% of Australia's exports in goods went to Asia and 39% of Australia's imports in goods came from Asia.

Japan is Australia's largest trading partner, receiving 24% of Australia's exports in 1994–95 and providing 17% of Australia's imports. Japan has been Australia's largest trading partner since 1954. However, over the last decade, Australia's share of Japan's trade has decreased. Japan is the largest trading partner of many countries in the Asia-Pacific region.

Australia has increased trade with the ASEAN nations over the last decade. Exports to ASEAN countries grew from 8% of all exports in 1984–85 to 15% in 1994–95. Over the same period imports from ASEAN countries grew from 6% of all imports to 9%.

Part of the growth in Australia's trade with Asia is due to the Asian economies growing faster than our other trading partners', and so increasing their share of Australia's trade. However Australia's share of trade with many

Australia's international trade in goods

	Australian exports		Australian imports		Australia's share of country's trade(a)	
Selected countries	1984–85	1994–95	1984–85	1994–95	1984	1994
	%	%	%	%	%	%
ASEAN	*7.7*	*15.5*	*5.7*	*8.6*	*2.4*	*2.2*
Indonesia	1.5	3.2	1.3	1.6	1.8	3.4
Malaysia	2.1	3.0	1.1	1.9	2.7	2.3
Singapore	2.7	5.4	2.5	3.0	2.9	1.9
China	3.7	4.4	1.3	4.9	2.2	1.7
Hong Kong	2.9	3.9	2.3	1.2	1.9	1.1
Japan	27.7	24.3	22.8	17.1	4.1	3.3
Korea, Republic of	4.0	7.8	1.6	2.7	2.5	2.5
Asia	**50.7**	**62.8**	**38.3**	**39.0**	**3.0**	**2.4**
UK	3.2	3.4	6.8	5.9	1.2	1.1
USA	12.0	6.9	22.1	21.5	1.4	1.1
World	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**1.3**	**1.2**
	$million	$million	$million	$million		
World	**28 874**	**66 984**	**29 021**	**74 620**	..	..

(a) Total trade of each country or group with Australia as a proportion of the total trade of each country with the world, in $US. Total trade is the sum of imports and exports.

Source: *International Merchandise Trade Australia* (5422.0); International Monetary Fund *Directory of Trade Statistics Yearbook, 1995*

Australia's international trade in services

Selected countries	Exports		Imports	
	1984–85	1993–94	1984–85	1993–94
	%	%	%	%
ASEAN	*12.7*	*15.2*	*9.8*	*12.6*
Indonesia	2.5	3.3	1.6	2.7
Malaysia	3.4	3.5	1.8	2.6
Singapore	3.8	5.5	4.3	4.7
China	0.9	1.5	0.9	1.7
Hong Kong	3.0	4.4	5.4	4.3
Japan	12.0	17.3	9.6	7.7
Korea, Republic of	0.2	2.5	0.2	1.4
UK	13.3	9.2	18.5	17.0
USA	15.7	12.5	15.6	14.4
World	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	$ million	$ million	$ million	$ million
World	**5 836**	**18 688**	**9 570**	**19 497**

Source: *Balance of Payments: Detailed Regional Series* (5338.A); *Balance of Payments and International Investment Position* (5363.0)

Asian countries has actually decreased over the past decade because their trade with other countries has grown at an even faster rate than their trade with Australia. For example, Australia's share of Japan's trade decreased from 4.1% in 1984 to 3.3% in 1994. One major exception to this was Indonesia, where Australia's share of trade increased from 1.8% to 3.4% between 1984 and 1994.

International trade in services

There has been high growth in trade in services over the last decade. On a world-wide scale Australian imports of services are higher than exports but in Australia's trade with many Asian countries, the reverse is true. In particular services exports to Japan have continued to increase while services imports have declined in proportional terms. Much of the increase in trade in services with Asian countries has been through tourism and overseas students. As a consequence of this, travel has been the largest service provided to most Asian countries.

Federal government

In line with strengthening economic and cultural links with Asia, the Federal government has also increased ties with Asian nations. Australia is a member of APEC (Asia Pacific Economic Co-operation) and in 1994–95 '...continued to place high priority

Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade staff(a)

Selected countries	At 30 June		
	1985	1990	1995
	%	%	%
Asia	*30.7*	*33.2*	*40.3*
Indonesia	4.1	4.2	5.3
China	2.0	3.7	3.9
India	4.1	4.1	3.8
Japan	2.7	3.2	3.5
Thailand	2.9	2.7	3.3
Malaysia	2.7	2.9	2.5
Hong Kong	1.9	2.2	1.8
Singapore	1.9	1.9	1.8
Philippines	1.9	2.0	1.8
Laos	0.4	0.4	1.8
Viet Nam	0.6	0.7	1.7
Total overseas staff	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	no.	no.	no.
Total overseas staff	**2 702**	**2 855**	**2 338**

(a) Comprises Australian-based staff in missions, high commissions, embassies and consulates, and Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade funded locally engaged staff.

Source: Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade *Annual Report*

on the successful development of APEC, given its potential to advance Australia's regional and global national interests.'[1] In December 1995 the government announced a new security alliance with Indonesia. This calls on both nations to consult with each other on external security issues.

In 1995, 2,338 people were employed by the Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade (DFAT) in Australian overseas missions. 40% of them were employed in Asia, comprising 28% locally engaged staff and 12% Australian-based staff. These proportions have gradually increased since 1985 when 31% of DFAT overseas staff were employed in Asia, 21% locally engaged and 9% Australian-based. This proportional increase occurred despite an overall decrease in the number of overseas staff employed by DFAT throughout the world.

At 30 June 1995, there were also 31 Australian Agency for International Development (AusAID, formerly AIDAB) staff at Australian missions in Asia, an increase from 24 in 1990 and 18 in 1985. Australian aid to the Asian region in 1994–95 totalled $565 million, 38% of Australia's total aid for the year.

In 1994–95 Indonesia had the largest proportion of DFAT overseas staff in an Asian country at 5%. Between 1985 and 1995, China experienced the largest increase in staff numbers becoming the second largest DFAT overseas post in Asia in 1995. Laos and Viet Nam experienced the largest proportional increases in staff with Laos more than tripling and Viet Nam more than doubling.

Visits to Laos and Viet Nam by Australian ministers have also increased over the last few years, from none in 1985–86 to 4 visits each in 1993–94. Thailand also experienced a large increase in the number of visits, from 2 to 7 over the same period. Overall the proportion of ministers' overseas visits to Asian nations has increased, from 36% in 1985–86 to 48% in 1993–94.

Federal ministerial visits(a)

Selected countries	Year to June 1986	1989	1992	1994
	no.	no.	no.	no.
Indonesia	3	4	6	10
Japan	4	9	7	9
Thailand	2	4	8	7
Singapore	4	3	10	7
Hong Kong	5	6	12	5
Laos	—	1	3	4
Viet Nam	—	1	3	4
Malaysia	2	1	5	3
China	4	6	4	2
Total trips to Asia	**16**	**22**	**35**	**29**
Total overseas trips	**45**	**58**	**83**	**61**

(a) Includes all official ministerial visits made. As a minister usually visits more than one country in one trip the components do not add to the total. For some trips not all the countries visited in Asia were specified.

Source: *Department of Administrative Services* (unpublished data)

Endnote

1 Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade *Annual Report 1994–95*.

Australia's population growth

POPULATION GROWTH

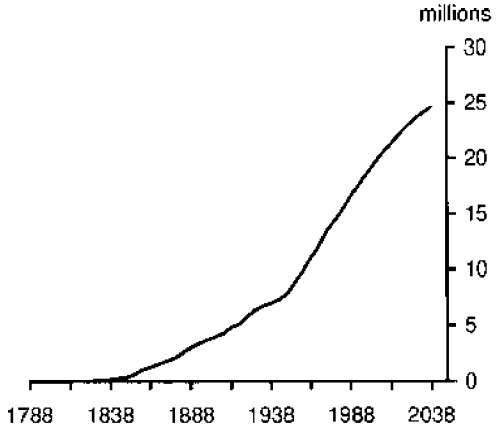
In June 1995, Australia's population was 18.1 million, almost twice the size it was 40 years ago, and four times the size in 1910.

An understanding of the dynamics of population growth is fundamental to policy making. Changes in fertility, mortality and net migration affect the size, distribution and structure of a population; vital ingredients for planning the provision of goods and services, such as housing, education, health and transport facilities[1].

Traditionally, concerns about Australia's population centred around the need for expansion. It was generally believed that the nation would be more secure and prosperous with a substantially increased population[2]. The immigration program after World War II was based on the belief that Australia was too thinly populated to ensure its security, or to optimise its economic development[2]. More recently however, there has been concern about global over-population and the impact of population growth on the environment[3].

It was in this context that the House of Representatives Standing Committee for Long Term Strategies released the results of their inquiry into Australia's population 'carrying capacity'[4]. The committee acknowledged the impact of population size and growth on a wide range of social, economic and environmental issues, and recommended that the government adopt an explicit population policy[4].

Actual and projected population



Source: *Australian Demography*, *Australian Demographic Statistics* (3102.0); *Projections of the Populations of Australia, States and Territories 1993 to 2041: Series A* (3222.0)

Population growth

The *crude birth rate* is the number of births in a calendar year per 1,000 of the population at 30 June. Prior to 1994, these rates were based on the mean population for the calendar year.

The *crude death rate* is the number of deaths in a calendar year per 1,000 of the population at 30 June. Prior to 1994, these rates were based on the mean population for the calendar year.

The *growth rate* is the change in the population during the calendar year expressed as a proportion of the population at the beginning of the year.

Population statistics prior to 1961 exclude 'full-blooded' Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people.

Population projections

The ABS produces several series of population projections based on different combinations of assumptions about mortality, fertility and migration. Most of the data presented here are from Series A of the 1993–2041 projections because the assumptions (medium fertility and low overseas migration) most closely reflect prevailing trends. Some comparisons with Series D (medium fertility and high net overseas migration) are also included.

For detailed information on the assumptions underlying the population projections, see *Projections of the Populations of Australia, States and Territories, 1993 to 2041* (3222.0).

Components of population growth

Population growth is governed by natural increase (the difference between births and deaths) and net migration (the difference between immigration and emigration) (see Australian Social Trends 1995 pp. 11–15 *Net overseas migration*).

Australia's population grew from 3.8 million at the turn of the century to 18.1 million in June 1995. While the population has grown steadily this century, rates of growth have fluctuated from year to year. These fluctuations are largely the result of fluctuations in net overseas migration, the growth from natural increase having been comparatively steady. Migration to Australia is

controlled by government policy, and net migration is influenced by the political, economic and social conditions which motivate people to migrate to and from Australia.

The main source of population growth since the turn of the century has been natural increase. 67% of the population growth between 1901 and 1994 can be attributed to natural increase, and the remainder to net overseas migration. Both birth and death rates have declined since the turn of the century, with birth rates falling faster than death rates. While death rates have declined steadily this century, birth rates have shown greater fluctuations from year to year.

Mortality decline has been attributed to improvements in public health measures such as personal hygiene, a safe water supply, better sewage disposal, and advances in medical technology (see Australian Social Trends 1995 pp. 51–54 *Life expectancy trends*).

The age-sex profile of a population, itself a legacy of past patterns of growth, influences natural increase through both fertility and mortality rates. For example, a population with a relatively young age profile can expect a large number of births even if most women have few children. This is because of the large number of women of childbearing age. Conversely, as the population ages, the number of deaths can be expected to increase because of the relatively large numbers of older people.

The steady growth of the population at the national level masks considerable variation at the regional, state and territory level. Some regions have experienced population decline. Each component of population growth, natural increase and net overseas migration shows variation at the regional level (see *Population — state summary table* p. 3). However, the most significant factor in regional variation in growth rates is net internal migration (see Australian Social Trends 1995 pp. 16–20 *Internal migration*).

The early decades (1901–45)

From the turn of the century until World War I (1901–13) the average annual growth rate was high at 2.3%. This was due to a high birth rate, and high net overseas migration in the latter part of the period.

In 1911, the year of Australia's first national census, Australia had a young population whose age-sex profile had been formed by a long period of high fertility and high

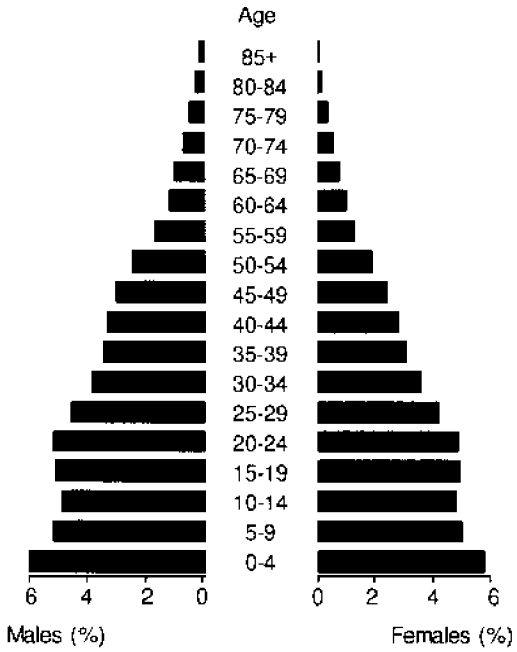
Population and components of growth

Period/year(a)	Population at end of period	Average annual growth rate		
		Natural increase	Net overseas migration	Population increase
	'000	%	%	%
Up to 1900	3 765.3	..	..	..
1901–13	4,893.7	1.8	0.6	2.3
1914–19	5,303.6	1.4	0.0	1.4
1920–29	6,436.2	1.5	0.7	2.1
1930–38	6,935.9	0.9	0.0	0.9
1939–45	7,430.2	0.9	0.1	1.0
1946–60	10,391.9	1.6	1.0	2.7
1961–70	12,663.5	1.3	0.9	2.1
1971–80	14,807.4	1.0	0.5	1.5
1981–90	17,169.8	0.9	0.7	1.6
1991	17,384.5	0.8	0.5	1.3
1992	17,573.2	0.8	0.3	1.1
1993	17,746.6	0.8	0.2	1.0
1994p	17,931.8	0.7	0.3	1.0

(a) At 31 December.

Source: *Australian Demographic Trends* (3102.0)

Age-sex profile of Australia's population, 1911



Source: *Census of the Commonwealth of Australia, 1911: Vol II*

mortality. Almost 12% of the population were under 5, and only 4% were aged 65 or over. The median age was 24 years.

During World War I, disruptions to civilian migration caused a decline in net migration. Growth from natural increase also declined steadily, from 1.8% in 1914 to 1.1% in 1919. This was due to a fall in the crude birth rate, and a rise in the crude death rate. Average annual population growth rates fell from 2.3% in the period 1901–13 to 1.4% in the period 1914–19.

Growth rates recovered in the post-war period, despite a fall in the crude birth rate. Annual growth rates averaged 2.1% in the 1920s. The increase in growth rates during this period was associated with increasing levels of migration to Australia following World War I.

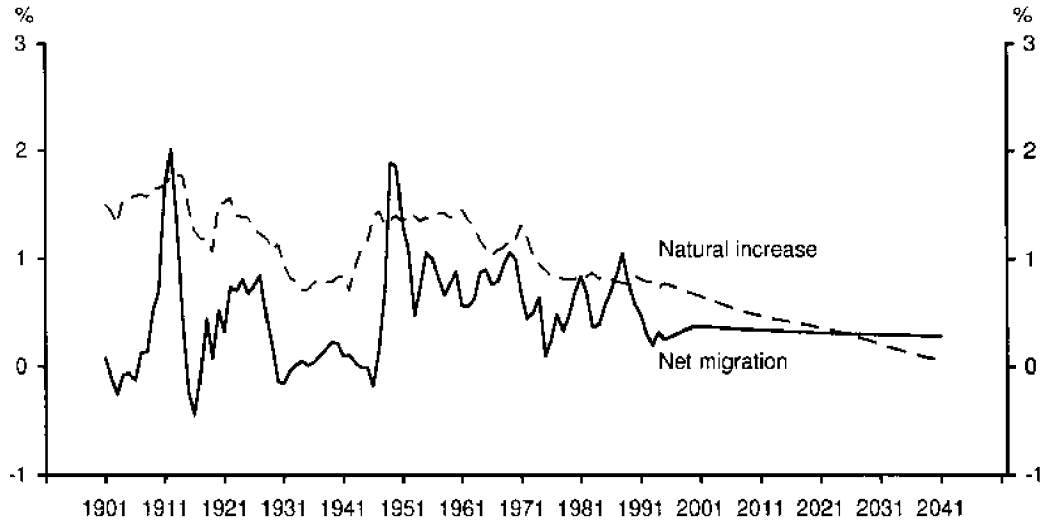
The economic collapse in 1929 and the depression during the 1930s led to a sharp decline in growth rates, falling to an average of 0.9% in the period 1930–38. This decline in growth was associated with low levels of net migration, and a sharp decline in the crude birth rate. This fell to 16.4 per 1,000 population in 1934, the lowest rate recorded up to that point in the century. It did not fall to this level again until 1976. The rate of growth from natural increase fell to 0.7% in 1934 and 1935, the lowest rate recorded this century.

During World War II annual growth rates remained relatively low, averaging 1.0% for the period 1939–45. While the crude birth rate increased during the war years and the population grew through natural increase, growth through net migration was low.

The post-war period (1946–60)

The post-war period from 1946–60 saw high annual growth rates averaging 2.7% per year. Migration was an important component of

Components of population growth



Source: *Australian Demography; Australian Demographic Statistics (3101.0); Australian Demographic Trends (3102.0); Projections of the Populations of Australia, States and Territories 1993 to 2041: Series A* (3222.0)

this growth with the government actively encouraging migration to boost Australia's population. During this period net overseas migration added 1.2 million people to the population, many of them Europeans displaced by World War II. 43% of this increase occured during the four years from 1949–1952.

Despite the high contribution of net migration, most of the growth during this period was due to natural increase, the well-documented 'baby boom'. This could more appropriately be termed a 'marriage boom'. A greater proportion of the population married and had children, and women were starting and completing their childbearing earlier[2]. The proportion of women aged 15 and over who had ever married increased from 64% in 1921 to 79% in 1961 (see Australian Social Trends 1995 pp. 33–37 *Trends in marriage and divorce*). Despite individual women having fewer children, a large number of children were born during this period because an increasing proportion of women had children (see *Trends in fertility* pp. 36–40).

The sixties and seventies (1961–80)

Population growth remained relatively high during the 1960s, averaging 2.1% per year. Rates of natural increase and net overseas migration eased back slightly from the high levels of the post-war period. Part of the decline in natural increase is attributed to the availability of oral contraception from 1961.

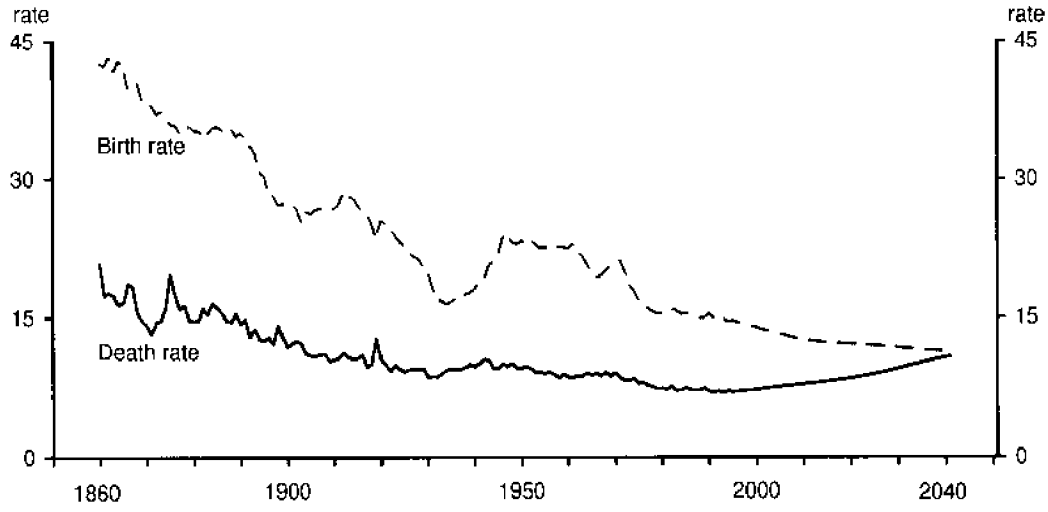
Growth rates fell sharply in the first half of the 1970s, from a peak of 2.1% in 1970 to 1.0% in 1975. The average annual growth rate for the 1970s was 1.5%. Levels of net migration declined as the economy slowed and employment opportunities contracted. During the same period there was a decline in fertility.

By the end of the 1970s fertility levels were even lower than those during the great depression, and were below replacement level (the fertility level required for a population to replace itself without immigration in the long-term). This decline was associated with social and economic developments, including higher levels of education and increasing numbers of women entering the labour force. Mortality rates were also falling, although at an insufficient pace to offset the fall in fertility, leading to a fall in growth due to natural increase from 1.2% in 1970 to 0.8% in 1980.

Recent developments (1981–94)

Australia's population increased from 15.1 million at the end of 1981 to 18.1 million in June 1995. Average annual growth rates declined in this period, falling from 1.7% in 1981 to 1.0% in 1994. Australia's average annual growth rate for the period 1990–95 of 1.2% was lower than the world average

Crude birth and death rates(a)



(a) Rates per 1,000 population.

Source: *Australian Demography, Australian Demographic Statistics (3101.0); Australian Demographic Trends* (3102.0); *Projections of the Populations of Australia, States and Territories 1993 to 2041: Series A* (3222.0)

annual rate over this period (1.6%), but similar to the rates of a number of other countries such as the USA, New Zealand, China, Singapore and Thailand[5].

The rate of growth due to natural increase continued to decline between 1981 and 1994, with fertility remaining below replacement level and death rates declining at almost all ages. The rate of growth due to net migration fluctuated considerably during this period, recording some of the lowest and highest rates since World War II.

In 1995 Australia's age-sex profile reflected a low fertility/low mortality population. 7% of the population were under 5, and 12% were 65 or over. The median age was 32 years.

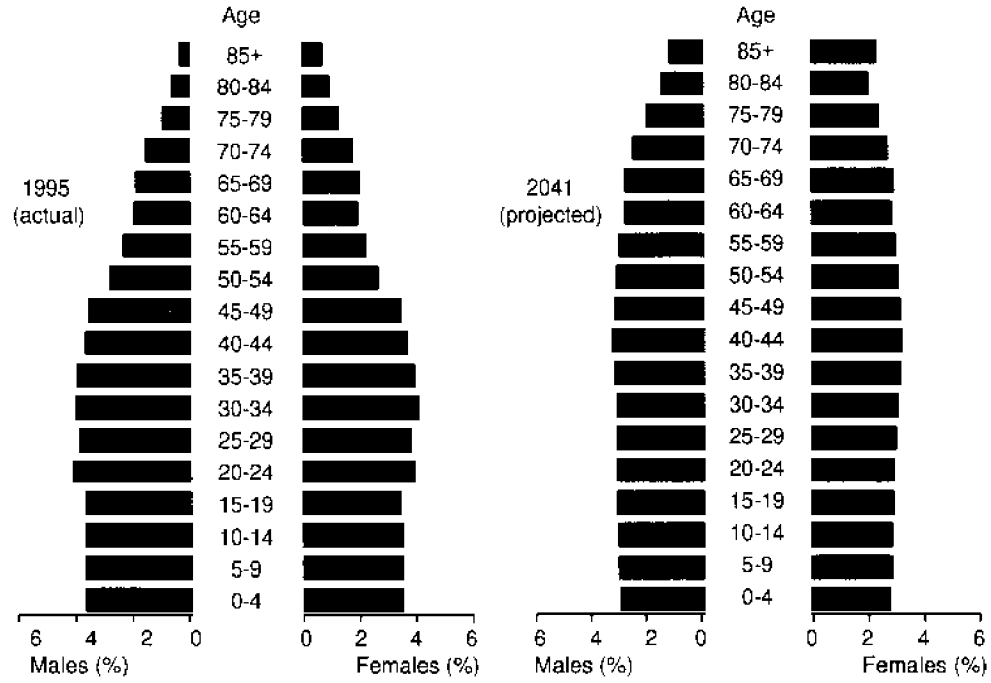
Where to from here?

In the latest population projections produced by the ABS, growth rates are projected to continue to decline for at least the next 50 years, largely the result of expected declines in natural increase. The decline in natural increase is a combination of an assumed fall in the birth rate and an increase in the death rate due to the ageing of the population. By 2041, the population growth rate under Series A assumptions (medium fertility and low overseas migration) is projected to be 0.3%. Under an alternative assumption of high net overseas migration (Series D), the growth rate is projected to be 0.5% in 2041.

The population is projected to increase from 17.9 million in 1994 to between 24.9 million (Series A assumptions) and 26.7 million (Series D assumptions) in 2041. Under Series A assumptions, migration is projected to overtake natural increase as the most significant component of growth around the year 2026. This contrasts with the pattern of growth in the twentieth century, when natural increase was overall, the most significant component of growth.

Although net migration is projected to take over from natural increase as the most significant component of growth next century, the population will continue to grow through natural increase for some time. Despite fertility being below replacement level, Australia's population is projected to grow through natural increase until at least 2041 because of the large numbers of women of childbearing age. This is an echo effect of the post war 'baby boom', as the grandchildren of the large number of people born in the 1950s and 60s have their children. Even if Australia has no future net overseas migration, the population would continue to grow until 2032, peaking at about 20.5 million people.

Age-sex profile of Australia's population



Source: *Australian Demographic Statistics* (3101.0); *Projections of the Populations of Australia, States and Territories 1993 to 2041 Series A* (3222.0)

The age-sex profile of the population projected for 2041 reflects a long period of low fertility and low mortality. A prominent feature is the relatively large proportion of older people, particularly older women. Although the proportion of women aged 65 or more in the population is projected to increase from 6.7% in 1995 to 12.3% in 2041, women of all ages will have increased their share of the total population by only a small amount (from 50.2% in 1995 to 50.9% in 2041). The projected median age of the population in 2041 is 41 years.

Endnotes

1 Maher, C. and Stimson, R. (1994) *Regional Population Growth in Australia: Nature, Impacts and Implications* AGPS, Canberra.

2 Birrell, R. and Birrell, T. (1987) *An Issue of People: Population and Australian Society* Longman Cheshire, Melbourne.

3 Wooden, M. et al. (1994) *Australian Immigration: a Survey of the Issues* AGPS, Canberra.

4 House of representatives Standing Committee for Long Term Strategies (1994) *Australia's Population 'Carrying Capacity'*.

5 *Australian Demographic Statistics* (3101.0)

Capital city growth and development

POPULATION GROWTH

The growth of Australia's capital cities has slowed since the late 1980s. Although natural increase contributed most to capital city growth, net migration caused most of the differences in growth between capital cities.

Australia is one of the most highly urbanised countries in the world. 63% of all Australians lived in state and territory capital cities in 1994. The character of Australia's capital cities is shaped by the increasingly diverse range of people who live in them.

Recent government policy initiatives relating to urban development include the Building Better Cities Program and the Australian Urban and Regional Development Review. These have sought to integrate urban and regional planning and to improve urban management, particularly relating to social equity, economic efficiency and environmental quality[1].

Capital city populations

In 1994 the largest capital city in Australia was Sydney with a population of 3.7 million. Melbourne was the next largest with 3.2 million. 39% of Australia's total population lived in Sydney or Melbourne. Brisbane, Adelaide and Perth all had populations over one million.

The proportion of the state population living in state capitals varied according to the city. 41% of Tasmanians lived in Hobart, whereas South Australia, Western Australia and Victoria had high proportions (72–73%) of their populations living in their capital cities.

While a large proportion of Australia's population lives in capital cities these cities still have relatively small populations compared to other cities in the world. In 1994 Tokyo was the largest city in the world with 26.5 million people, more than the entire population of Australia. New York was the second most populous city, and the largest in the United States. It had a population similar in size to all of Australia (16.3 million)[2]. Sydney has a similar population to Frankfurt in Germany and some of the smaller cities in the United States such as Detroit and Dallas. Sydney is currently ranked 57th of all cities in the world in terms of population size.

Capital cities

The boundaries of a city are often difficult to determine and invariably change over time. Choosing the exact area which represents a city affects the estimation of that city's population size and growth.

In this review *capital city* refers to the statistical division surrounding a state or territory capital. Statistical divisions are large regional geographic units. They represent relatively homogeneous regions characterised by identifiable social and economic links between the inhabitants and between the economic units within the region, under the unifying influence of one or more major towns or cities. Over the period 1986–94 capital city statistical divisions have changed to correspond to changes in capital city areas. Data in this review are based on the 1994 boundaries.

Populations of capital cities at 30 June

	1986		1994	
Capital cities	Population	% of state	Population	% of state
	'000	%	'000	%
Sydney	3 471.6	62.8	3 736.7	61.8
Melbourne	2 967.8	71.3	3 197.8	71.5
Brisbane	1 217.3	46.4	1 454.4	45.5
Perth	1 050.1	72.0	1 238.8	72.8
Adelaide	1 003.5	72.6	1 076.1	73.2
Hobart	182.1	40.8	194.2	41.1
Darwin	75.4	48.8	78.1	45.6
Canberra	257.9	99.6	300.5	99.9
All capital cities	**10 225.6**	**63.8**	**11 276.6**	**63.2**
Australia	**16 018.4**	..	**17 838.4**	..

Source: *Estimated Resident Population* (unpublished data)

Capital city population annual growth rates(a)

Capital cities	1986–87	1987–88	1988–89	1989–90	1990–91	1991–92	1992–93	1993–94
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Sydney	1.6	1.8	0.9	0.6	0.8	0.7	0.4	0.6
Melbourne	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.3	1.0	0.7	0.3	0.3
Brisbane	1.7	2.1	2.8	2.4	2.0	2.2	2.5	2.3
Adelaide	0.8	0.9	1.2	1.1	1.2	0.9	0.4	0.5
Perth	2.8	2.9	3.3	2.4	1.1	1.4	1.3	1.4
Hobart	0.7	0.5	1.0	1.7	1.0	0.7	0.5	0.5
Darwin	2.2	-1.5	0.2	0.7	0.3	0.8	0.7	0.2
Canberra	2.5	2.5	1.6	2.1	2.5	1.8	1.5	0.9
All capital cities	**1.6**	**1.7**	**1.6**	**1.3**	**1.1**	**1.0**	**0.8**	**0.8**

(a) Refers to growth between June in the two years specified.

Source: *Estimated Residential Population* (unpublished data)

Growth of capital cities

Within the capital cities, population growth has been uneven. The populations of some inner suburbs have declined as the people living there have aged and died, and their children have grown up and left. Meanwhile, the populations of other inner suburbs have grown due to urban renewal. Many outer suburbs have grown due to an influx of younger families to these areas.

Between 1986 and 1994 the population living in capital cities grew by 10%. However, the annual rate of growth decreased over this period. In 1993–94 the annual growth rate of all capital cities was 0.8% compared to 1.6% in 1986–87.

Between 1986 and 1994 the fastest growing cities were Brisbane and Perth with total growth of 19% and 18% respectively. However, their annual growth rates varied over the period. Perth grew most quickly in the early part of the period with annual growth rates of about 3% in the late 1980s. In the 1990s, the annual growth rate slowed and was 1.4% in 1993–94. Higher growth in the late 1980s compared to the 1990s was a common pattern for most capital cities.

Brisbane was the only capital city whose annual growth rate was over 2% in 1993–94. Although its annual growth rate declined in 1989–91 it never fell below the 1986–87 level. Canberra also experienced annual growth rates at around 2% in the early 1990s. However Canberra's growth rate declined to 0.9% in 1993–94.

Darwin, Adelaide and Hobart continued to have low growth rates but Darwin was the only capital to have a decline in its population during this period. This was in 1987–88 when the population fell by 1.5%. This decline was the result of a large loss due to net migration.

Components of growth

Population growth comprises natural increase (the difference between the number of births and the number of deaths) and net migration (the difference between those moving in and those moving out). Between 1986 and 1994 natural increase was the major contributor to growth in capital city populations, accounting for almost two-thirds of the total growth. However this proportion varied considerably between capitals, from 34% of Brisbane's growth to 83% of Hobart's, Melbourne's and Sydney's growth.

Darwin had the highest rate of natural increase in the period 1986–94. However, the

Components of capital city population growth, 1986–94

Capital cities	Natural increase	Net migration	Growth
	%	%	%
Sydney	6.3	1.3	7.6
Melbourne	6.4	1.3	7.8
Brisbane	6.7	12.8	19.5
Adelaide	4.5	2.7	7.2
Perth	7.5	10.5	18.0
Hobart	5.6	1.1	6.7
Darwin	12.2	- 8.6	3.6
Canberra	10.3	6.0	16.2
All capital cities	**6.5**	**3.8**	**10.3**

Source: *Estimated Resident Population* (unpublished data)

large net migration outflow resulted in very low growth overall.

Like Darwin, Canberra had a high rate of natural increase. However it also had a sizeable gain through net migration, giving it the third highest level of growth for capital cities over the period 1986–94.

Brisbane's high net migration (13%) contributed to it having the highest population growth of any capital city in the period 1986–94. Perth also had a high rate of net migration and consequently the second highest overall growth rate. In 1993–94 Brisbane continued to have high net migration (1.5%) although Perth's had slowed to 0.6%.

Age structure

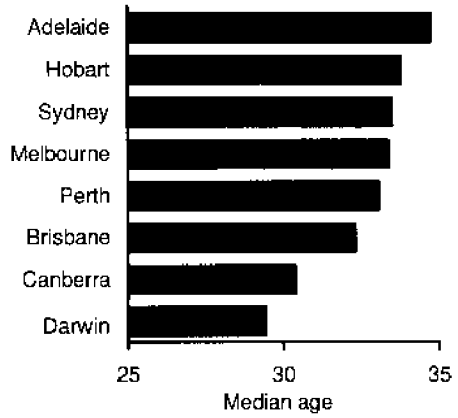
Capital cities differ slightly in the median ages of their populations. There is a dynamic relationship between the median age of a city's population and its growth due to natural increase. Younger populations are likely to produce children. This will both increase the city's total population and lower the median age. In contrast, older populations produce fewer children and have higher death rates which decrease a city's population and raise the median age.

In 1994 Darwin had the youngest population with a median age of 29.4. It had the lowest proportion of people aged 65 or over (3% of the population compared to 12% of the population of all capital cities). It also had the highest proportion of people of prime working age (25–44) with 37% of its population in this group. This reflects a tendency for people to move to Darwin for work and leave on retirement. As a consequence of the numbers of working age adults in Darwin, this city also had a higher proportion of children than other cities.

Canberra also had a young median age (30.4 years) compared to the other capital cities. Like Darwin, it had a low proportion of people aged 65 and over and a high proportion of people of prime working age. It also had a high proportion of people aged 15–24, a consequence of the numbers of young people who move to Canberra for study or work purposes as well as high birth rates in Canberra in the 1970s.

Adelaide with a median age of 34.8 years, had the largest proportion of people aged 65 or over of any capital city. Hobart also had a relatively high proportion of older inhabitants. As the populations of Adelaide and Hobart age, natural increase will slow further and the median age will continue to rise.

Median age of the population in capital cities, June 1994



Source: *Estimated Residential Population* (unpublished data)

Birthplace

The proportions of the population who were born overseas varies for different capital cities. In 1991, 29% of people living in capital cities had been born in an overseas country. However, between cities, this ranged from 13% in Hobart to 34% in Perth.

8% of the population of Australia's capital cities had been born in the United Kingdom (UK). This group formed the largest proportion of the overseas born population in every capital city. In Hobart, Perth and Adelaide almost half of the overseas born were from this country.

3.2% of the population in Melbourne and 2.7% of those in Adelaide had been born in Italy. On average over all capital cities, 2.1% of the population were from Italy.

People born in New Zealand were also well represented in the population of capital cities. However, their proportions varied greatly between cities. In Brisbane they accounted for 3.4% of the population and in Darwin 2.7%. A large number of New Zealanders also lived in Sydney although they accounted for only 1.9% of the population in that city.

Dwellings

The mix of dwelling types in a city depends on the population growth of the city, the availability of land, the city's planning and

Birthplaces of capital city populations, 1991

Selected birthplaces	Sydney	Melbourne	Brisbane	Adelaide	Perth	Hobart	Darwin	Canberra	All capital cities
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Australian born	68.8	69.7	79.1	73.5	65.8	87.1	74.4	76.0	71.0
Overseas born	*31.2*	*30.3*	*20.9*	*26.5*	*34.2*	*12.9*	*25.6*	*24.0*	*29.0*
United Kingdom	6.1	6.2	7.2	11.6	15.2	5.7	6.9	7.0	7.8
Italy	1.7	3.2	0.6	2.7	2.1	0.5	0.6	1.0	2.1
New Zealand	1.9	1.2	3.4	0.8	2.3	0.8	2.7	1.3	1.8
Yugoslavia	1.4	1.9	0.4	0.8	1.0	0.3	0.2	1.4	1.3
Greece	1.2	2.2	0.2	1.2	0.3	0.3	1.3	0.6	1.2
Viet Nam	1.4	1.5	0.6	0.9	0.7	0.1	0.4	0.7	1.2
Germany	0.6	0.8	0.6	1.1	0.7	0.6	0.8	1.0	0.8
China	1.2	0.7	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.5	0.5	0.7
Lebanon	1.5	0.5	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.6
Malaysia	0.5	0.7	0.3	0.4	1.4	0.2	0.8	0.6	0.6
Total population	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total population(a)	**3 538.8**	**3 022.4**	**1 333.9**	**1 023.6**	**1 143.3**	**181.8**	**78.4**	**279.0**	**10 601.2**

(a) Includes birthplace not stated.

Source: *1991 Census – Community profiles, Australia* (2722.0)

development, and the quality and flexibility of urban infrastructures such as roads and public transport[3]. Australia's capital cities are characterised by high proportions of separate houses, 76% overall in 1994. However the mix of other dwelling types reflects the different growth patterns of the cities.

High proportions of flats, units and apartments tended to be in the cities which had grown in the post-war period and were particularly popular in the 1960s when there was a spate of flat building[3]. 20% of Sydney's dwellings and 16% of Melbourne's dwellings were flats, units or apartments. Adelaide and Perth had the highest proportions of semi-detached, row or terrace houses or town houses (17% and 13% respectively), reflecting the growth of these cities during the 1970s and early 1980s.

High proportions of separate houses reflect in part the geography of a city and the availability of land. In some cities they may also reflect recent housing growth as detached housing gained an increasing share of the

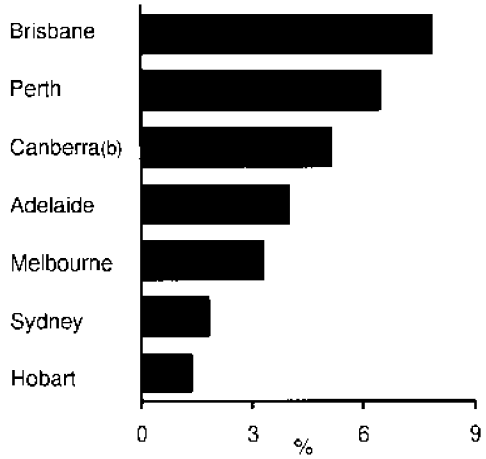
Type of occupied dwellings in capital cities, 1994

Capital cities	Separate houses	Semi-detached, row or terrace and town houses	Flats, units and apartments	Total(a)	Total(a)
	%	%	%	%	'000
Sydney	70.2	10.1	19.6	100.0	1 360.2
Melbourne	77.5	7.0	15.6	100.0	1 170.5
Brisbane	84.0	4.5	11.6	100.0	560.2
Adelaide	75.4	17.3	7.0	100.0	438.9
Perth	78.2	13.2	8.1	100.0	475.3
Hobart	81.3	7.8	10.6	100.0	75.4
Darwin	* *	* *	* *	* *	* *
Canberra	81.3	9.4	9.3	100.0	110.6
All capital cities	**75.8**	**9.5**	**14.5**	**100.0**	**4 257.6**

(a) Includes other dwelling structures such as caravans, houseboats and houses or flats attached to a shop.

Source: *Australian Housing Survey* (unpublished data)

Dwellings less than 2 years old in capital cities(a), 1994



(a) Darwin figures not available.
(b) Canberra figures are for ACT.

Source: *Australian Housing Survey* (unpublished data)

residential construction market in the 1980s and this was expected to continue into the 1990s[3]. In 1994 in Brisbane, Hobart and Canberra, separate houses accounted for over 80% of all occupied dwellings.

The age of the dwellings also reflects the growth of a city. Cities with recent high population growth rates had the highest proportions of younger housing stock. In 1994, 8% of Brisbane's housing stock was less than 2 years old. Perth and Canberra also had high proportions of dwellings less than 2 years old. Conversely only 2% of Sydney's dwellings and 1% of Hobart's dwellings were aged less than 2 years.

Endnotes

1 Australian Urban and Regional Development Review (1995) *Australian cities and regions: a national approach*.

2 United Nations (1994) *World Urbanisation Prospects*.

3 Paris, C. (1993) *Housing Australia*, MacMillan Education, Melbourne.

Family

Family — national summary

LIVING ARRANGEMENTS	Units	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
Total families	'000	4 033	4 087	4 146	4 236	4 319	4 456	4 502	4 587	4 638	4 709	4 791
Persons who live alone (of persons aged 15 and over)	%	8.2	8.2	8.3	8.5	8.4	8.2	8.6	8.9	9.6	9.6	10.0
Average family size (persons)	no.	3.3	3.3	3.3	3.2	3.2	3.2	3.2	3.2	3.2	3.1	3.1
Couple families with dependants (of all families)	%	46.7	45.8	45.5	45.7	44.7	44.3	43.7	43.4	42.9	41.6	41.4
One parent families with a male parent with dependants (of all families)	%	na	na	na	1.0	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.2	1.2
One parent families with a female parent with dependants (of all families)	%	na	na	na	7.0	6.8	7.1	7.4	7.9	7.9	7.8	8.5
Couple only families (of all families)	%	29.6	30.2	30.4	30.7	31.5	31.2	31.3	31.1	32.1	33.3	33.6
De facto couples (of all couples)	%	na	5.7	na	na	na	na	8.2	na	na	na	na
Couples with dependants, both employed (of all couples with dependants)	%	45.5	48.5	50.2	50.9	53.8	55.9	53.4	53.3	52.5	52.8	57.7
One parent families with dependants, parent employed (of all one parent families with dependants)	%	na	na	na	na	50.2	49.0	47.0	45.7	45.3	45.9	46.9

FAMILY FORMATION	Units	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994
Marriage rate (per 1,000 not married males)	no.	50.7	48.8	46.0	r45.8	r45.5	r44.6	r43.5	41.7	41.1	39.8	38.2
Median age of men at first marriage	years	25.1	25.4	25.6	25.9	26.1	26.3	26.4	26.7	26.9	27.0	27.2
Median age of women at first marriage	years	22.9	23.2	23.5	23.8	24.0	24.2	24.3	24.5	24.7	24.8	25.1
Marriages where both partners married for the first time (of all marriages)	%	66.8	67.1	66.7	67.2	67.1	67.3	67.4	67.5	67.2	67.1	67.5
Divorce rate (per 1,000 married males)	no.	12.0	10.9	10.7	10.6	10.8	10.8	10.9	11.6	11.5	12.1	12.0
Median duration of marriage to separation	years	7.8	7.7	7.6	7.3	7.3	7.3	7.3	7.4	7.4	7.6	7.7
Divorces involving children (of all divorces)	%	60.9	60.6	59.7	58.6	57.5	55.3	55.6	54.2	52.9	52.6	nya
Total fertility rate (per woman)	no.	1.88	1.89	1.87	1.85	1.84	1.84	1.90	1.85	1.89	1.87	1.85
Median age of mothers at first birth within registered marriage	years	26.0	26.3	26.5	26.8	27.1	27.3	27.6	27.8	28.0	28.3	28.5
Births to mothers aged under 20 (of all births)	%	6.3	5.9	5.9	5.7	5.7	5.7	5.8	5.7	5.4	5.1	5.0
Births to mothers aged over 35 (of all births)	%	7.1	7.5	7.9	8.5	9.0	9.6	10.0	10.7	11.4	11.9	12.9
Births outside marriage (of all births)	%	14.8	15.5	16.8	18.0	19.0	20.2	21.9	23.0	24.0	24.9	25.6
Births outside marriage acknowledged by father (of all births outside marriage)	%	na	68.2	70.6	73.0	74.4	75.9	77.1	79.5	81.0	81.7	82.2

Reference periods: Data on family formation are for the calendar year. Data on de facto couples are at census date. Data on other living arrangements are at 30 June from 1986; prior to that the reference date was 30 July.

Family — state summary

LIVING ARRANGEMENTS	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Total families	'000	1995	1 634	1 202	868	395	455	127	34	76	4 791
Persons who live alone (of persons aged 15 and over)	%	1995	9.7	10.0	9.6	12.3	9.8	11.0	7.4	8.6	10.0
Average family size (persons)	no.	1995	3.2	3.1	3.1	3.0	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.2	3.1
Couple families with dependants (of all families)	%	1995	41.7	42.2	40.1	38.3	42.3	41.7	40.0	46.7	41.4
One parent families with a male parent with dependants (of all families)	%	1995	1.1	1.3	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.1	* *	* *	1.2
One parent families with a female parent with dependants (of all families)	%	1995	8.4	8.0	9.0	8.7	8.3	8.8	11.5	11.1	8.5
Couple only families (of all families)	%	1995	32.1	32.4	35.8	36.5	35.4	35.3	34.0	28.2	33.6
De facto couples (of all couples)	%	1991	7.9	6.7	9.7	7.9	9.6	8.3	18.5	9.2	8.2
Couples with dependants, both employed (of all couples with dependants)	%	1995	57.8	57.2	56.7	56.8	58.8	53.5	69.7	68.6	57.7
One parent families with dependants, parent employed (of all one parent families with dependants)	%	1995	41.3	51.4	50.7	45.5	46.8	43.0	51.0	57.9	46.9

FAMILY FORMATION	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Crude marriage rate	no.	1994	6.4	6.0	6.5	6.1	6.1	6.1	4.5	5.5	6.2
Median age of men at first marriage	years	1994	27.3	27.3	26.8	27.0	27.4	26.5	28.2	27.2	27.2
Median age of women at first marriage	years	1994	25.1	25.4	24.8	24.9	25.2	24.5	25.6	25.2	25.1
Marriages where both partners married for the first time (of all marriages)	%	1994	68.1	70.7	65.3	65.1	64.8	63.7	58.6	68.6	67.5
Crude divorce rate	no.	1994	2.6	2.5	2.6	2.8	2.9	3.2	2.1	3.1	2.7
Median duration of marriage to separation	years	1994	7.2	7.8	8.1	8.3	8.1	8.8	7.4	7.2	7.7
Divorces involving children (of all divorces)	%	1994	50.0	nya	56.6	47.6	50.3	61.3	56.7	56.3	nya
Total fertility rate (per woman)	no.	1994	1.88	1.79	1.86	1.74	1.88	1.96	2.34	1.72	1.85
Median age of mothers at first birth within registered marriage	years	1994	28.4	28.7	28.2	28.8	28.3	28.0	28.2	28.7	28.5
Births to mothers aged under 20 (of all births)	%	1994	4.8	3.4	6.5	4.0	6.1	6.6	13.6	3.8	5.0
Births to mothers aged over 35 (of all births)	%	1994	13.3	14.0	11.3	13.5	11.9	9.8	9.6	13.6	12.9
Births outside marriage (of all births)	%	1994	24.5	20.5	29.7	26.5	28.7	31.0	56.3	23.4	25.6
Births outside marriage acknowledged by father (of all births outside marriage)	%	1994	82.5	84.1	81.1	84.1	82.4	85.3	65.9	82.1	82.2

Reference periods: Data on defacto couples are at census date. Data on other living arrangements are at 30 June.

Family — definitions and references

Average family size — the total number of family members divided by the number of families.
Reference: Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Families, Australia (6224.0.40.001)

Birth — the delivery of a child irrespective of the duration of pregnancy who, after being born, breathes or shows any other evidence of life such as heart-beat.
Reference: Births, Australia (3301.0)

Births outside marriage — births where the father was not registered as married to the mother at the time of the birth, whether or not the parents were living together at the time of the birth, and whether or not the child may subsequently have been legitimated or adopted.
Reference: Births, Australia (3301.0)

Births outside marriage acknowledged by father — births outside registered marriage where the father's name is recorded on the birth certificate.
Reference: Births, Australia (3301.0)

Couple family — a family consisting of a male and a female partner who are registered as married or are in a de facto relationship. It may include one or more dependent children and/or other family members.
Reference: Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Families, Australia (6224.0.40.001)

Couple family with dependants — a couple family with at least one dependent child present.
Reference: Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Families, Australia (6224.0.40.001)

Couple only family — a couple family with no dependent children or other family members (eg adult children) present.
Reference: Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Families, Australia (6224.0.40.001)

Crude divorce rate — the number of divorces granted in the calendar year per 1,000 of the estimated resident population at 30 June of that year.
Reference: Divorces, Australia (3307.0)

Crude marriage rate — the number of marriages registered in the calendar year per 1,000 of the estimated resident population at 30 June of that year.
Reference: Marriages, Australia (3306.0)

De facto couple — a couple who identified themselves as de facto partners in a relationship question.
Reference: Census of Population and Housing (2722.0)

Dependants (dependent children) — all family members under 15 and family members aged 15–24 attending an educational institution full-time, except those classified as husbands, wives, lone parents or other family heads.
Reference: Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Families, Australia (6224.0.40.001)

Divorce rate — the number of divorces granted per 1,000 male or female population registered as married.
Reference: Divorces, Australia (3307.0)

Divorces involving children — divorces of couples with unmarried children of the registered marriage who were under 18 at the time of application for divorce. Under the *Family Law Act 1975*, adopted and ex-nuptial children and children from a former registered marriage may be included (in certain cases). Children who are registered as married or aged 18 or more are not subject to custody and guardianship orders and are excluded.
Reference: Divorces, Australia (3307.0)

Employed — persons aged 15 and over who either worked during the reference week for pay, profit, commission, payment in kind or without pay in a family business, or who had a job but were not at work.
Reference: The Labour Force, Australia (6203.0)

Family — two or more people related by blood, registered marriage, adoption, or a de facto relationship who live in the same household. Three major family types are identified: couple families, one parent families and families of related adults. Families living in non-private dwellings and non-family members (such as friends or boarders) are excluded.
Reference: Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Families, Australia (6224.0.40.001)

Lone parent — the head of a one parent family.
Reference: Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Families, Australia (6224.0.40.001)

Marriage rate — the number of registered marriages per 1,000 not married male or female population aged 15 and over.
Reference: Marriages, Australia (3306.0)

Marriages where both partners married for the first time
Reference: Marriages, Australia (3306.0)

Median — the value at which half the population falls above, and half falls below.

Median age at first marriage
Reference: Marriages, Australia (3306.0)

Median age of mothers at first birth within registered marriage
Reference: Births, Australia (3301.0)

Median duration of marriage to separation — the median interval between the date of registered marriage and the date of separation.
Reference: Divorces, Australia (3307.0)

One parent family with dependants — a parent together with at least one dependent child of his/her own.
Reference: Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Families, Australia (6224.0.40.001)

Persons who live alone — persons who are the only member of a household.
Reference: Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Families, Australia (6224.0.40.001)

Total fertility rate — the average number of children a woman would bear during her lifetime if she conformed to the current age-specific fertility rates.
Reference: Births, Australia (3301.0)

People who live alone

LIVING ARRANGEMENTS

In 1995, 11% of adults living in private dwellings lived alone. Older people, particularly women, were most likely to live alone.

The number of people living alone has implications for social policy, welfare and service delivery. It also reflects social changes such as the increase in numbers of divorced and widowed people.

A person's likelihood of living alone is largely determined by their marital status, which in turn is related to their age and whether they are male or female. In 1995, the median age of never married people was 22, compared to 44 for people in a registered marriage or de facto relationship, 46 for divorced people and 73 for widowed people. Because of this relationship between marital status and age, and because young never married people generally live with their parents or in group households, older people have a greater likelihood of living alone.

The numbers and proportions of adults living alone are increasing. In 1986, 1.1 million people aged 15 and over (8.9% of the population) lived alone. By 1991 there had been little change in the proportion living alone. However, by 1995 it had increased to 10.5% (1.5 million people).

Proportion of people living alone

Marital status	1986	1991	1995
	%	%	%
Men	*7.3*	*7.7*	*9.5*
Never married	12.6	12.6	16.6
Married	0.4	0.4	0.6
Divorced/separated	45.8	47.1	53.9
Widowed	59.0	65.5	64.0
Women	*10.4*	*10.5*	*11.5*
Never married	11.3	10.7	12.7
Married	0.2	0.3	0.3
Divorced/separated	25.6	27.5	31.2
Widowed	62.2	64.0	67.2
All persons	**8.9**	**9.1**	**10.5**
	'000	'000	'000
Men living alone	436.1	500.2	651.6
Women living alone	627.8	698.9	806.2
Total living alone	**1 063.9**	**1 191.1**	**1 457.8**

Source: *Household Estimates, Australia* (unpublished data)

Household estimates

The household estimates presented in this review are for 30 June of the reference year and refer to the population aged 15 and over living in private dwellings. The estimates were derived from the estimated resident population by applying factors based on census data to adjust for the population living in private dwellings. This population was then distributed to households on the basis of factors derived from the Labour Force Survey. For more information on the estimation procedure, see *Household Estimates, Australia* (3229.0).

A private dwelling is a suite of rooms within a building which is self-contained and intended for long-term residential use. To be self-contained, the suite of rooms must possess cooking and bathing facilities as part of the building.

A household is a group of people who usually live and eat together. A household may be a family, a group household or a lone person household, or a household containing visitors only (eg a holiday home). A household resides in a private dwelling.

Because marital status affects a person's likelihood of living alone, where indicated in this review data have been *standardised* to the marital status distribution of the total population at 30 June 1995. The standardised estimates show the proportion of people in a group who would live alone if they had the same marital status distribution as the standard population.

Marital status

Widowed people, followed by divorced or separated people, were more likely to live alone than those who had never been married or those who were currently married. In 1995, 67% of widowed women and 64% of widowed men lived alone. There were almost five times more widowed women who lived alone (414,000) than widowed men (86,000), a consequence of the greater life expectancy of women. This difference is the main contributor to the overall higher proportion of women living alone (11.5% compared to 9.5%).

31% of women and 54% of men who were divorced or separated lived alone. This difference is due to women being more likely to have custody of the children after marital breakdown (see Australian Social Trends 1995 pp. 29–32 *Children in families*). While there were over one and a half times as many

women as men who were divorced or separated, more of the men (199,000) than the women (178,000) lived alone.

Of people who had never been married, 17% of the men (343,000) and 13% (202,000) of the women lived alone.

States

There was some difference between states in the proportions of people living alone. In 1995, 13% of people in South Australia and 12% in Tasmania lived alone compared to 9% in the Australian Capital Territory and 10% in the Northern Territory. The proportion of people living alone increased between 1986 and 1995 for all states. The differences between states in the proportions of people living alone reflect the different marital status structures of their populations which in turn reflect their different age structures (see *Population — state summary table* p. 3).

Standardising for marital status reduced the differences between the states. The standardised proportions of people living alone ranged from 10% in the Australian Capital Territory to 13% in South Australia and 12% in Tasmania. The higher standardised rates in South Australia, Tasmania and Western Australia suggest that their age and sex structures have an effect independent of their marital status structures.

Differences in the tendency to live alone between capital cities and other areas of the state were small. Proportions were generally marginally higher in capital cities.

Proportion of people living alone, 1995

State	Population	Standardised rate(a)
	%	%
NSW	10.1	10.0
Vic.	10.6	10.6
Qld	10.1	10.1
SA	13.0	12.6
WA	10.5	11.3
Tas.	11.9	11.7
NT	9.6	10.3
ACT	9.1	9.8
Australia	**10.5**	**10.5**

(a) Standardised to the marital status distribution of 30 June 1995 Australian resident population aged 15 and over living in private dwellings.

Source: *Household Estimates, Australia* (unpublished data)

Proportion of people living alone, 1995

Country of birth	Population	Standardised rate(a)	Median age
	%	%	years
Australia	10.7	10.5	38
UK & Ireland	13.1	14.1	48
Italy	10.0	13.9	58
Greece	6.8	14.0	54
Former Yugoslav republics	9.2	14.3	47
Netherlands	10.3	11.2	52
Germany	16.9	18.6	53
New Zealand	8.7	10.5	37
Viet Nam	4.0	3.7	33
Poland	20.3	18.2	56
Other	7.9	9.1	41
Total	**10.5**	**10.5**	**40**

(a) Standardised to the marital status distribution of 30 June 1995 Australian resident population aged 15 and over living in private dwellings.

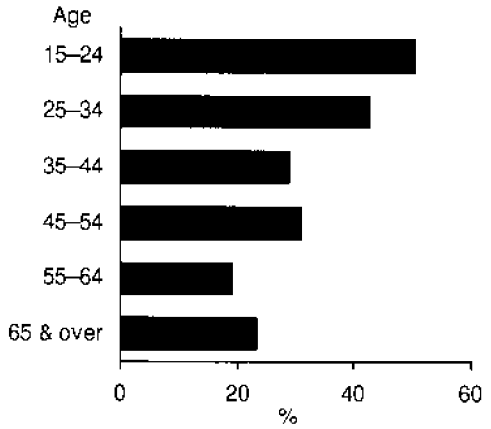
Source: *Household Estimates, Australia* (unpublished data)

Country of birth

The proportion of people living alone varied quite substantially by country of birth. Some of the country of birth groups with high proportions of people living alone (Germany and Poland) also had high median ages (56 and 53 years respectively). In contrast, the Viet Nam born population which had the lowest proportion of people living alone had the lowest median age (33 years).

When standardised for marital status, the proportions of people living alone showed less variation by country of birth. In particular, the standardised figures for the Italian and Greek born populations were 14%, indicating that their likelihood of living alone was similar to that of people born in other overseas countries but that their marital status distributions were different. Both groups had relatively small proportions of widowed people partly because of the tendency for older people in these groups to return to their country of birth (see Australian Social Trends 1994 pp.13–17 *Emigration*).

Proportion of people living alone who lived in flats, units or apartments, 1994



Source: *Australian Housing Survey, 1994* (unpublished data)

Housing

People who live alone are more likely than others to live in flats, units or apartments. In 1994, 28% of people who lived alone lived in such dwellings compared to 12% of all households. The likelihood of living in a flat, unit or apartment decreased with age, from 50% of people aged 15–24 who lived alone to 19% of those aged 55–64, then increased for the 65 and over age group. This is related to older people's circumstances and housing needs (see *Housing for older people* pp. 150–155).

35% of people living alone were renters compared to 28% of all households. The likelihood of renting declined with age, from 79% of people aged 15–24 living alone to 21% of those aged 65 and over. Owners who lived alone were most likely to be aged 65 or over while purchasers were most likely to be aged 35–44. This pattern is similar to the pattern for all households[1].

Time use

Among those who live alone, young people spend less time alone than older people. In 1992, people aged 15–24 spent 10 hours 29 minutes alone per day, compared to 14 hours 32 minutes per day for those aged 25–59 and 19 hours 11 minutes for those aged 60 and over. These times include time spent sleeping and on other personal care activities. When people under 60 who lived alone spent time with others, they spent most time with friends, including workmates, almost 10 hours per day for those aged 15–24 and over 6 hours per day for those aged 25–59. They also spent around 2 hours per day with their families. People aged 60 and over also spent about 2 hours per day with their families only, and another 2 hours per day with family and friends.

Social context of time spent by people living alone, 1992

Social context	Aged 15–24	Aged 25–59	Aged 60 & over	Total
	hrs/day	hrs/day	hrs/day	hrs/day
Alone	10.5	14.5	19.2	16.9
With family only(a)	2.0	1.6	1.8	1.8
With friends only(a)	9.7	6.2	2.0	4.0
With family & friends(a)	0.2	0.5	0.2	0.3
Other(b)	1.6	1.2	0.8	1.0

(a) Administrative, service and shop personnel, crowd or undescribed people may also be present.
(b) Only administrative, service and shop personnel, crowd or undescribed people present.

Source: *Time Use Survey* (unpublished data)

Young people who lived alone spent more time on social and entertainment activities than older people. Those aged 15–24 spent nearly 3 hours per day on social and entertainment activities, compared to just over 2 hours spent by those aged 25–59 and just under 2 hours by those aged 60 and over. In contrast, older people spent nearly 5 hours per day on passive leisure activities such as watching TV, reading, relaxing etc, compared to just over 3 hours for those aged 25–59 and 1 and a half hours for those aged 15–24. People who lived alone spent less than 1 hour per day on active leisure.

Endnote

1 Housing characteristics, costs and conditions (4182.0).

Trends in fertility

FAMILY FORMATION

Australian women are having fewer children than ever before. In 1994, 41% of births within marriage were the first child of that marriage.

Fertility is one of the components of population growth and changes in fertility impact on both the size of the population and its structure. Declining fertility leads ultimately to an ageing population which has policy implications for income support and the provision of health and community support services (see Australian Social Trends 1994 pp. 27–29 *Projections of the aged population*).

Throughout this century, the crude birth rate has been declining although there have been fluctuations, most notably the recovery after the low of the great depression through the war years and the 'baby boom'. However, changes in fertility cannot be considered in isolation from changes in infant and child mortality nor from changes in society which have increasingly seen children as an economic liability rather than the economic advantage they were in pre-industrialised times.

In the hundred years 1894–1994, the crude birth rate halved, from 31 births per 1,000 mean population to 14. During the same period the infant mortality rate declined significantly. In 1894, for every 1,000 babies born, 104 died before their first birthday. In 1994 the number was 6.

Crude birth rates and infant mortality rates

Year	Crude birth rate(a)	Infant mortality rate(b)
	rate	rate
1894	30.83	103.90
1904	26.41	81.77
1914	27.90	71.47
1924	23.21	57.08
1934	16.39	43.59
1944	20.98	31.34
1954	22.50	22.48
1964	20.58	19.06
1974	17.87	16.14
1984	15.02	9.24
1994	14.47	5.86

(a) Births per 1,000 mean population.
(b) Deaths under 1 year per 1,000 live births.

Source: *Australian Demography, Births, Australia* (3301.0); *Deaths, Australia* (3302.0)

Family size and fertility

Births occurring in Australia must be registered with the state/territory Registrars of Births, Deaths and Marriages. For births, information is collected about the mother, father (when paternity is acknowledged), the baby, and any previous births to the mother from her current marriage. If the mother is not married or has been married more than once, information about any children from previous relationships is only collected by the WA and ACT registries.

Current family size is calculated from the information supplied on previous births. It does not take account of childhood deaths, adoptions or children not living with the family. Therefore, while it reflects the actual number of children a mother may have care of, it is not a complete measure of family size. This is particularly relevant to the interpretation of data from the early part of the century when child mortality was high and mothers bore children over a long period of time so that the older ones may have left home before the younger ones were born.

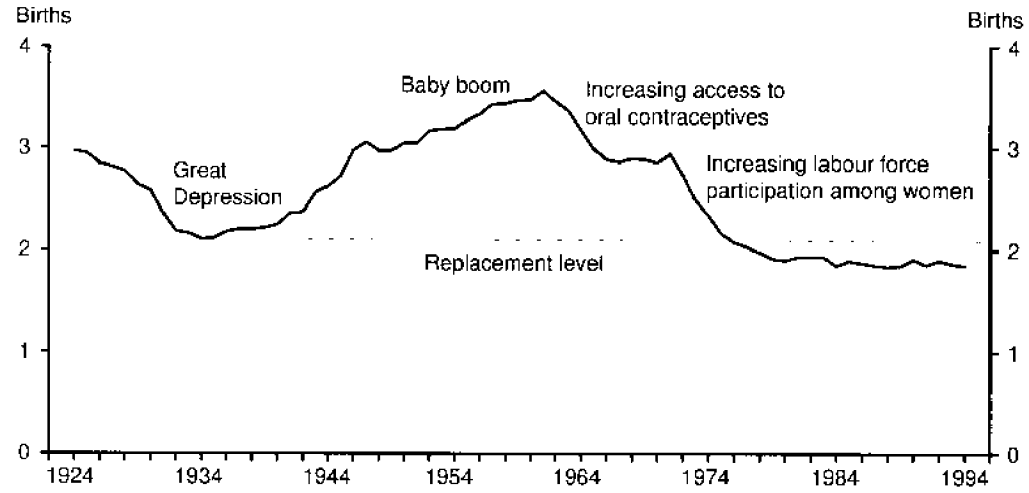
The *total fertility rate* is the number of babies a woman could expect to have in her lifetime given the fertility patterns prevailing at the time. The *fertility rate* for a particular age group is the number of babies that group of women could expect to have given the fertility patterns prevailing in the group at the time.

Replacement level fertility is the value of the total fertility rate which, when deaths of women of child bearing age are taken into account, allows replacement of the total population. At current levels of mortality it is a total fertility rate of 2.1.

Changes in total fertility

Government concern about population growth is not new in Australia. However, recent policy has focused on migration while in the first half of the century, the concern was declining fertility. In 1903, when the crude birth rate was lower than it had ever been before (see *Australia's population growth* pp. 17–22), The Royal Commission On the Decline in the Birth-rate and On the Mortality of Infants in New South Wales was appointed, the first such Royal Commission in the English-speaking world. It reported in 1904 and concluded that '...the cause or

Total fertility rate



Source: *Australian Demography; Births, Australia* (3301.0)

causes of the Decline of the Birth rate must be a force or forces over which the people themselves have control...'[1]. In other words, couples were limiting the size of their families.

At the turn of the century, there were 117 births per 1,000 women of child bearing age (15–44 years). This approximates a total fertility rate of 3.5. In 1924, the total fertility rate was 3.0 and falling. In 1925, a Federal Royal Commission on Health was appointed to examine the falling birth rate, the high maternal and infant death rate and venereal disease.

In 1934, in the middle of the great depression, the total fertility rate fell to an all-time low of 2.1 babies per woman. It then increased during the second half of the great depression, through World War II, and continued to increase until 1961 when it reached 3.6 babies per woman. In 1944, ironically when the birth rate was increasing towards the 'baby boom', the National Health and Medical Research Council published an Interim Report on the Decline of the Birth-rate.

After the 1961 peak, the total fertility rate fell rapidly, to 2.9 babies per woman in the years 1966–71. This fall has generally been attributed to the contraceptive pill becoming available but it also reflects changing social attitudes, in particular a change in people's perception of desired family size and how children should be spaced. The pill merely made '...desired family size a practical and assured reality'[2].

During the 1970s the total fertility rate dropped again, from 2.9 in 1971, falling to below replacement level in 1976 where it has since remained. This fall was just as marked as the fall in the early 1960s, but has not been attributed to further improvements in contraceptive methods. Rather it has been linked to the increasing participation of women in the labour force coupled with changing attitudes to family size, standard of living and life-style choices[3].

Current family size

Current family size is an indicator of the average number of children in a family. It depends on the proportion of women who, in a given year, give birth to their first, second,

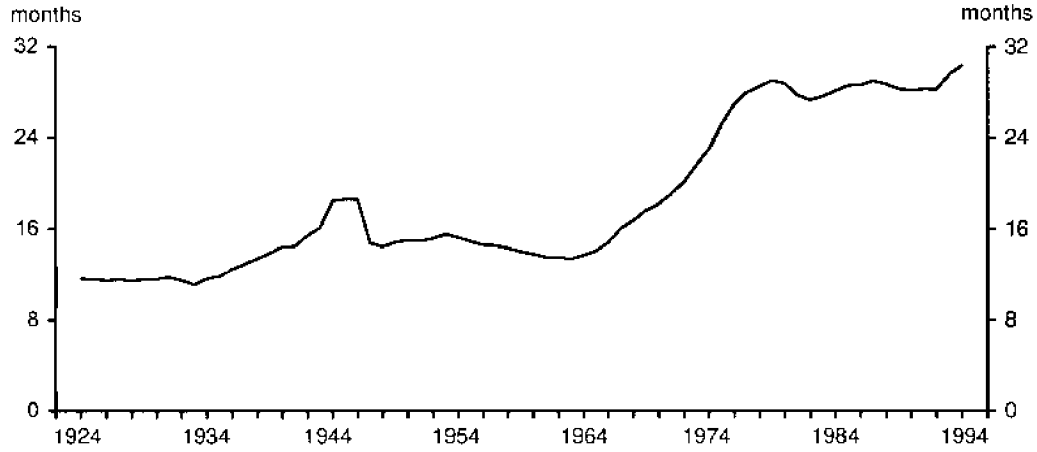
Current family size(a)

Year	First births	Sixth or higher order births	Current family size
	%	%	number
1924	28.9	13.9	3.1
1934	33.5	11.4	2.8
1944	36.8	6.0	2.4
1954	32.3	5.0	2.5
1964	32.3	6.1	2.6
1974	39.3	2.0	2.1
1984	40.2	0.9	2.0
1994	40.8	0.9	2.0

(a) Births in the current marriage only. Excludes births where birth order was not stated.

Source: *Australian Demography; Births, Australia* (3301.0)

Median duration from marriage to first birth



Source: *Australian Demography, Births, Australia* (3301.0)

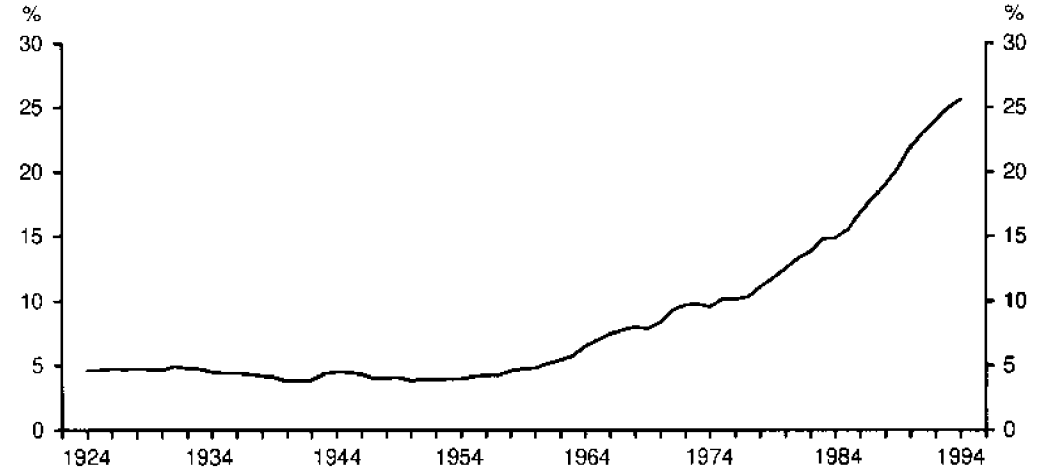
third etc babies. Of married women who gave birth in 1924, 29% had their first baby and 23% had their second. 14% had a sixth or higher order birth. Current family size was 3.1 for all married women who gave birth. For married women aged 45 or over who gave birth, current family size was 7.7. This figure approximates completed family size since women aged 45 or over may be considered to have completed their child bearing. In 1934, when the total fertility rate was at its lowest, 33% of married women who gave birth had a first birth, 24% a second and 11% a sixth or higher order birth. Current family size had declined to 2.8.

The fall in the total fertility rate between 1924 and 1934 can be largely attributed to couples limiting their current family size rather than to deferring marriage or the start of their child bearing. In both the 1921 and 1933 Censuses 52% of women aged 15–44 were recorded as married. Between 1924 and 1934 there was no change in the median duration of marriage at first birth (11.6 months). In 1934 current family size for women under 25 and over 44 who gave birth was the same as it had been in 1924. However, current family size for those aged 25–44 had declined since 1924.

After 1934, the proportion of mothers who bore six or more babies continued to decline until 1952, then increased until 1963, and then declined again. In 1981 the proportion fell below 1% for the first time and it has remained at that level ever since. Current family size showed a similar pattern. In 1994 current family size was 2.0 and for women aged 45 or over it was 3.2.

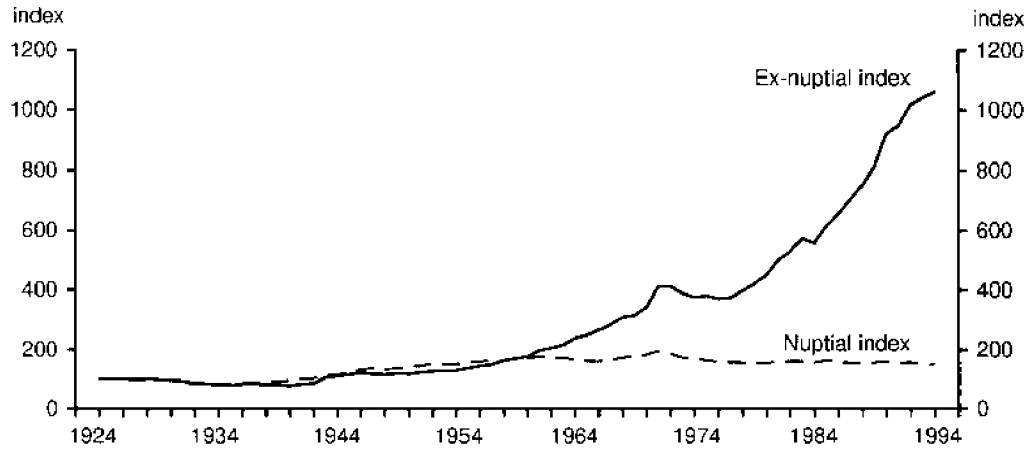
Apart from a peak during the latter years of World War II, the median duration of

Births outside marriage



Source: *Australian Demography, Births, Australia* (3301.0)

Indexes(a) of nuptial and ex-nuptial births



(a) Base year 1924=100.

Source: *Australian Demography*; *Births, Australia* (3301.0)

marriage at first birth did not change much until the early 1960s. However, following the introduction of the contraceptive pill in 1961, a sharp increase occurred lasting throughout the 1970s before stabilising at about two and a half years.

Births outside marriage

The first part of this review has focused on births within marriage. Until 1960 such births represented more than 95% of all births. However, the link between marriage and child bearing is weakening as de facto relationships become more common (see Australian Social Trends 1995 pp. 38–40 *Trends in de facto partnering*). Since 1960 the proportion of births which occurred outside marriage (ex-nuptial births) has increased steadily, reaching 26% in 1994.

The indexes of nuptial and ex-nuptial births show the relative patterns of change in the numbers of nuptial and ex-nuptial births. Until 1960 the patterns had been similar, both increasing by about 70% overall since 1924. However, in 1961, when the contraceptive pill was first made available in Australia, the patterns began to diverge. Initially, use of the pill was largely restricted to married women. 'Some doctors were reluctant to prescribe for unmarried women unless they could justify a medical indication...advice to prevent pregnancy was considered immoral'[4]. Even in the Family Planning Associations the debate on whether to extend services to unmarried women and minors (people under the age of 21) continued until the 1970s. Between 1961 and 1971 the number of ex-nuptial births doubled while the number of nuptial births increased by 15%. For the next few years the number of ex-nuptial births declined slightly but started to increase again in 1978 along with the increasing number of de facto relationships.

Because of the increasing number of births outside marriage and of births in second or subsequent marriages, analysis of fertility patterns based on births in the current marriage only no longer gives the full picture. Birth information collected by the Western Australian and Australian Capital Territory registries includes information on all previous births. In 1994, 42% of all women who gave birth in Western Australia and 43% of those in the Australian Capital Territory had their first baby. This is slightly higher than the 39% and 40% respectively of married mothers who had their first baby.

Current family size(a), 1994

Age	First births	Sixth and higher order births	Current family size
	%	%	number
WA			
Nuptial births	39.4	0.8	2.0
All births	41.5	1.4	2.0
ACT			
Nuptial births	40.1	0.7	1.9
All births	42.5	0.7	1.9

(a) Excludes births where birth order was not stated.

Source: *Births, Australia* (3301.0)

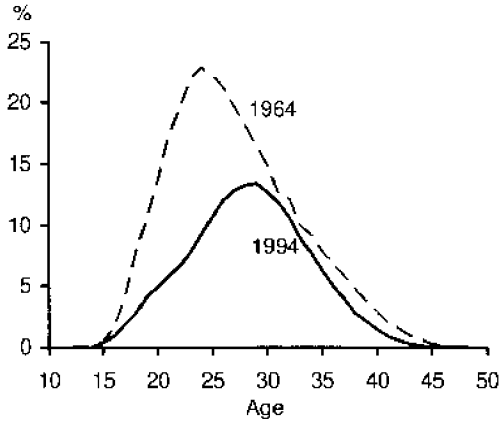
Age of mothers

The last thirty years have seen major changes in fertility patterns. Women are not only delaying child bearing until much later in their lives, they are also having fewer children and there is some evidence to suggest that they are concentrating their child bearing over a shorter span of years.

Between 1964 and 1994, the fertility rate for teenage women fell from 0.24 to 0.10. These births represented 10% of all births in 1964 and 5% in 1994. Similarly, the fertility rate for women aged 35 and over fell from 0.38 in 1964 to 0.24 in 1994. These births represented 12% and 13% respectively of all births. These changes reflect women's greater control over their fertility, regardless of age or marital status, as well as a tendency to defer childbearing associated with increased education and employment opportunities.

In 1964, peak fertility was among 24 year old women, with 23% having babies. By 1994, peak fertility was among 29 year old women, but only 13% had babies. While the proportions of women of each age who had a baby in the year were consistently less in 1994 than in 1964, the age concentration of births increased slightly. In 1964, 61% of births were to women in the ten year peak fertility age group (20–29) and 77% were in the fifteen year group (17–31). In 1994 the ten year peak fertility group (25–34) accounted for 63% of births and the fifteen year group (22–36) accounted for 83%.

Proportion of women giving birth



Source: *Australian Demography; Births, Australia* (3301.0); *Estimated Resident Population by Sex and Age, States and Territories of Australia* (3201.0)

Endnotes

1 Quoted in Hicks, N. (1978) *'This sin and scandal'* ANU Press, Canberra.

2 Browne, E. (1979) *The Empty Cradle* NSW University Press, Sydney.

3 Birrell, R. and T. (1987) *An Issue of People* 2nd ed., Longman Cheshire Pty Ltd, Melbourne.

4 Siedlecky, S. and Wyndham, D. (1990) *Populate and Perish* Allen & Unwin Australia Pty Ltd, Sydney.

War veterans and their carers

FAMILY FUNCTIONING

In 1995 there were 199,000 Australian war veterans receiving service pensions.

The 50th anniversary of the end of World War II was commemorated in 1995. Consequently, there was much publicity about Australia's war history and the well-being of our current war veterans. Because of their age and life histories, war veterans often have special health, lifestyle and financial needs and many receive income support from government pensions or benefits.

Australian involvement in conflicts this century

Australia's war veteran population is the result of Australian involvement in a number of wars and conflicts. During this century over 1.5 million Australian men and women have served in eight major wars or conflicts. Some of them served in more than one. More than 100,000 people died in action, more than 200,000 were wounded and more than 30,000 were taken prisoners of war (POWs).

The number and proportion of service personnel who died, were wounded or were POWs varied between conflicts. More Australian service personnel were enlisted or engaged in World War II than in any other conflict. 4% died and 7% were wounded. In comparison, 2% died and 7% were wounded in the Korean War and 1% died and 5% were wounded in the Viet Nam War.

War veterans

The Department of Veterans' Affairs (DVA) defines a *war veteran* as a person who, under the *Veterans' Entitlements Act 1986*, has undertaken eligible war service. Under the Act, veterans are entitled to a number of benefits. The service pension, which is income and assets tested, is paid at age 55 for female veterans and at age 60 for male veterans. It is also payable to younger veterans who are permanently incapacitated for work. In addition, war veterans may receive a disability pension, supplementary benefits or assistance (such as a health care card), housing loan subsidies and other housing related benefits.

The *Survey of Disability, Ageing and Carers* provides information on older persons (those aged 60 or more) and persons with one or more disabilities as well as the carers of these two groups. War veterans can be identified from this survey only if they have a DVA health care card. For more information see the *Disability, Ageing and Carers, Australia: User Guide* (4431.0).

Service pensioners

In 1995, 199,000 Australian war veterans received service pensions. Between 1980 and 1987 the number of war veterans who received service pensions increased from 146,000 to 234,000. Subsequently the number declined. This pattern reflects the large numbers of World War II veterans who reached their 60s in the early 1980s and therefore qualified for the service pension. In

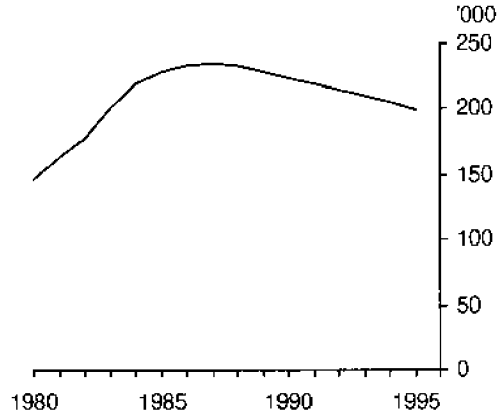
Australian involvement in 20th century conflicts(a)

Conflict	Persons enlisted	Deaths	Wounded	POWs
	no.	no.	no.	no.
Boer War — 1899–1902	16 463	606	538	100
World War 1 — 1914–18	416 809(b)	61 919	155 000	4 044
World War 11 — 1939–45	993 000	39 366	66 553	30 560
Korean War — 1950–53	17 164	339	1 216	29
Malayan Emergency — 1950–60	7 000(c)	36	20	na
Indonesian Confrontation — 1960–63	3 500(c)	15	9	na
Viet Nam War — 1962–73	50 001	520	2 398	na

(a) Data are not available for the Gulf War of February 1991.
(b) Excludes RAN.
(c) Excludes RAN and RAAF.

Source: Australian War Memorial *data archives*

War veterans receiving service pensions



Source: Department of Veterans' Affairs *Annual Reports*

1995, the average age of war veterans receiving a disability or service pension was 74 years[1], reflecting the fact that although veterans receiving benefits served in a number of different wars, most current veterans (76%) served in World War II.

War veterans with disabilities

In 1993 there were 256,000 war veterans with a Department of Veterans' Affairs health care card identified in the Survey of Disability, Ageing and Carers. 71% of these (181,000 people) had a disabling condition. Of these, 26% reported that their disabling condition was caused by involvement in war. 174,000 war veterans had a physical disorder as their main disabling condition. 25% of these reported that their condition was caused by involvement in war.

In 1993 arthritis was the main physical disorder affecting war veterans. 20% of veterans reported that their arthritis was caused by involvement in war. In contrast, while 32,000 veterans had disorders of the ear and mastoid process, 45% reported that their disorder was caused by involvement in war. Of the 8,000 war veterans whose main disabling condition was a mental disorder, 48% reported that their condition was caused by involvement in war.

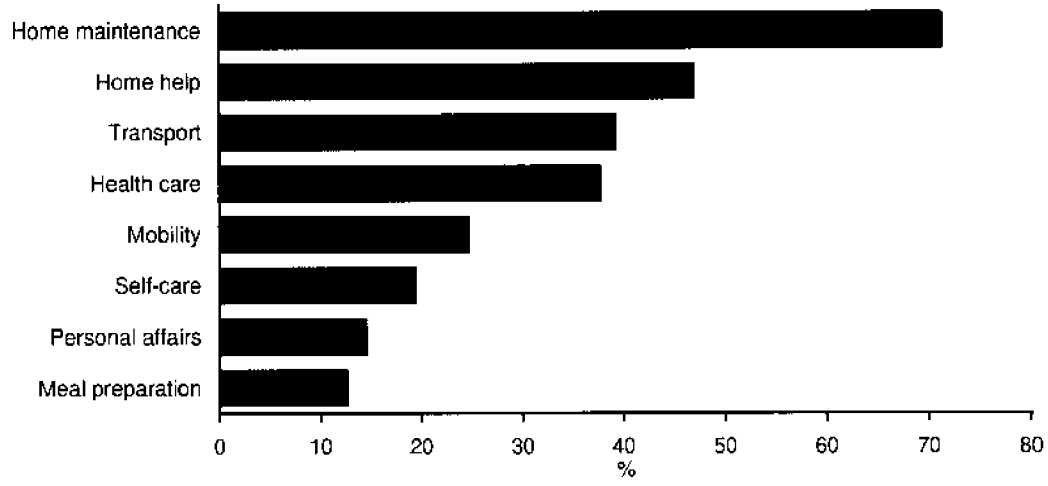
War veterans(a) with disabilities, 1993

Main disabling condition	Number of veterans	Caused by war
	'000	%
Physical conditions	*173.9*	*24.8*
Arthritis	36.9	20.3*
Disorders of the ear and mastoid process	32.4	45.1
Circulatory diseases	26.2	20.2*
Other physical disorders	78.1	20.2
Mental disorders	7.5*	48.0*
Total	**181.4**	**25.7**

(a) Refers only to those veterans with a health care card.

Source: *Survey of Disability, Ageing and Carers* (unpublished data)

Veterans needing and receiving domestic assistance(a), 1993



(a) Refers to domestic assistance given by main providers only. Veterans may receive more than one type of domestic assistance.

Source: *Survey of Disability, Ageing and Carers* (unpublished data)

Veterans needing and receiving domestic help

In 1993, 116,000 veterans with a health care card said they needed help with domestic activities. 85% of them received formal or informal help with such activities. Of these, 71% received help with home maintenance, 39% with transport, 38% with health care and 47% received home help.

In 1993, 78,900 war veterans received informal help for at least one domestic activity and 46,100 received formal help. 63% of veterans receiving informal help received help with home maintenance, 44% received home help and 42% help with transport. Veterans who received formal help were most likely to receive help with home maintenance or health care, both 45%.

The type of informal help received differed according to the main provider. Wives were most likely to provide help around the home; husbands, daughters and daughters-in-law help with transport; and sons, sons-in-law and other providers help with home maintenance.

For all activities except health care, the main source of help for war veterans who had a partner was, not surprisingly, the partner. Help with health care was most commonly formal. War veterans without partners made much greater use of formal help. Those who received informal help received it mainly from their daughters or friends and neighbours.

Endnote

1 Department of Veterans' Affairs (unpublished data).

Principal carers and their caring roles

FAMILY SERVICES

Two-thirds of principal carers reported some change in their physical and emotional well-being due to their caring role.

With the increased emphasis on community care of people with a handicap and of the elderly (see *Housing for older people* pp. 150–155), unpaid informal care by family members is an important source of support for people with a handicap. In 1993, 541,000 people were identified as principal carers. Almost all (95%) principal carers provided care to a family member, most commonly a partner, a parent or a child. Two-thirds of principal carers were women.

Most (72%) principal carers provided care to people living in the same household. Principal carers who lived with the person they cared for generally experienced more disruption to their daily lives than those who lived in a different household.

Principal carers of partners

In 1993, 42% of principal carers provided care to a partner. Similar numbers of men and women were principal carers of partners (108,000 and 121,000 respectively). However, because there were twice as many female principal carers as male principal carers a higher proportion of the men were principal carers of partners (61% compared to 33%).

43% of principal carers of partners were under 55. 38% of male principal carers caring for a partner were under 55 compared to 48% of female principal carers of partners.

Because principal carers of partners were generally older than other carers and more likely to be of retirement age, they were the least likely of all principal carers to be employed. 27% of principal carers of partners were receiving the age pension as their main source of income.

Principal carers of parents

In 1993, 28% of principal carers provided care to their parent(s). The majority (73%) of these were women. 62% of principal carers of parents did not live in the same household as the recipient of care. Principal carers of

Relationship of principal carer to recipient of care, 1993

Recipient of care	Principal carers		
	Men	Women	Persons
	%	%	%
Partner	60.7	33.4	42.3
Parent	22.9	30.3	27.9
Child	3.8*	22.7	16.5
Other(a)	12.5	13.7	13.3
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	'000	'000	'000
Total carers	**177.2**	**364.0**	**541.2**

(a) Other family members (eg brothers, sisters, aunts, uncles or grandparents) or non-family members.

Source: *Focus on Families: Caring in Families* (4423.0)

Types of care and principal carers

Informal care/help is help provided to a person with a disability, or a person who is aged 60 or over, by family, friends or neighbours. Generally, this help is unpaid.

Self-care is care that a person would normally provide for themselves but, due to their age or disability, is now provided by a carer. It includes showering, bathing, dressing, eating, toileting, bladder or bowel control.

Provision of care relating to *mobility* includes help with going places away from the house or establishment, moving about the house or establishment, and transferring to and from a bed or chair.

Help relating to *verbal communication* is help with understanding or being understood, in the person's native language, by strangers, family, friends or staff of an establishment.

A *principal carer* is a person aged 15 or over who is the main provider of informal care to persons who always or sometimes need help for the activities of self-care, mobility or verbal communication.

Disability is the presence of one or more of a selected group of limitations, restrictions or impairments which had lasted, or were likely to last, for a period of six months or more.

Handicap is identified as a limitation in performing certain tasks associated with daily living. The limitation must be due to a disability and be in relation to self-care, mobility, verbal communication, schooling or employment.

Principal carers by age, 1993

Age	Principal carers of partners	Principal carers of parents	Principal carers of children	All principal carers(a)
	%	%	%	%
15–24	1.6*	7.0	* *	3.8
25–34	8.0	10.1	21.0	12.3
35–44	14.5	26.2	42.3	22.4
45–54	19.2	36.2	18.0	23.9
55–64	20.1	16.7	7.8*	16.9
65–74	21.1	3.7*	6.6*	13.2
75 and over	15.5	* *	3.6*	7.5
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total	**229.1**	**150.9**	**89.3**	**541.2**

(a) Includes principal carers of other family members (eg brothers, sisters, aunts, uncles or grandparents) or non-family members.

Source: *Survey of Disability, Ageing and Carers* (unpublished data)

parents were most commonly aged 45–54 (36%).

A greater proportion of principal carers of parents were employed (55%) than of principal carers of children (45%) or partners (26%). While looking after parents places fewer restrictions on working than looking after children, principal carers of parents still experienced some restrictions to their working life. 7% of principal carers of parents had reduced their work hours and 5% had given up work in order to fulfil their caring role. Because of their greater likelihood of being employed the incomes of principal carers of parents tended to be higher than those of principal carers of partners or children.

How caring affects principal carers' working lives, 1993

Effect on working life	Principal carers of partners	Principal carers of parents	Principal carers of children	All principal carers(a)
	%	%	%	%
Currently working	*26.2*	*55.5*	*45.2*	*39.8*
No change in work hours	22.8	48.4	34.2	34.0
Reduced hours for caring role	3.5*	7.0	11.0	5.8
Not currently working	*73.8*	*44.5*	*54.8*	*60.2*
Worked prior to caring role	27.5	17.4	19.6	22.5
Gave up work for caring role	7.8	4.5*	10.4	6.6
Did not work prior to caring role	46.3	27.1	35.2	37.7
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total	**229.1**	**150.9**	**89.3**	**541.2**

(a) Includes principal carers of other family members (eg brothers, sisters, aunts, uncles or grandparents) or non-family members.

Source: *Survey of Disability, Ageing and Carers* (unpublished data)

Principal carers of children

In 1993, 17% of principal carers were providers of care to children aged 5 and over with a handicap and 93% of these were women. 42% of all principal carers of children were aged 35–44.

Caring for children with a handicap can often be a lifelong task for parents. Most of the children receiving care were under 15 (59%) but 12% were 30 or over. Principal carers of children also tend to be in the caring role for longer than principal carers of partners or parents. In 1993, 45% of those caring for a child had been doing so for 10 years or longer, compared to 30% caring for a partner and 21% caring for a parent. 20% of principal carers of children had been in the caring role for 20 years or longer, well into the adulthood of the child.

Principal carers of children may be restricted by their caring role from entering the labour force, or may have left work or reduced their hours of work because of their caring role. 50% of female principal carers of children were employed. The majority of these (64%) were employed part-time (the highest proportion of all carer groups). This is because part-time work can better accommodate the times when children need care. 11% of all principal carers of children had reduced their work hours and 10% had given up work in order to fulfil their caring role.

Impact on daily life

The caring role can place many demands on a principal carer's time. These demands can operate as a barrier to other lifestyle choices. Carers may be unable to pursue employment, educational or recreational activities because of their caring role or to complete regular tasks such as housework.

More principal carers of partners and children than principal carers of parents reported that their caring role affected their ability to do housework and go out of the house. This is largely because they were more likely than principal carers of parents to live in the same household as the recipient of care. 46% of principal carers living in the same household as the recipient of care reported that their caring role affected their ability to do housework compared to 19% of those not in the same household. 23% of those living in the same household as the recipient of care experienced difficulties in arranging to go out during the day and 36% experienced difficulties in arranging to go out during the evening. This compared to 6% and 5% respectively of those not living in the same household.

Principal carers whose daily lives(a) were affected by the caring role, 1993

Effect on daily life(b)	In same household	Not in same household	Total
	%	%	%
Less able to go out in the day	23.1	6.1	18.3
Less able to go out in the evening	36.1	4.8*	27.2
Less able to go on holiday	41.2	20.5	35.2
Less able to do housework	46.3	18.9	38.5
Interrupted sleep	44.6	15.7	36.4

(a) Effects on daily lives not stated have been excluded from percentage calculations.
(b) Excludes minor changes to activities.

Source: *Survey of Disability, Ageing and Carers* (unpublished data)

Some principal carers reported that their caring role led to difficulties in going on holiday. 41% of principal carers in the same household took fewer holidays or could not go on holiday compared to 20% not in the same household. The most common reasons given were difficulties in arranging alternative care or that they could only take holidays with the care recipient.

Carers who lived in the same household as the recipient of care were more likely to have their sleep interrupted (45%) than carers who did not live in the same household (16%). In both cases, 60% of them reported that the interrupted sleep interfered with their normal daily activities.

Effect on relationships

Caring for another person is a rewarding and demanding role that can both strengthen relationships and place strains on them. In 1993, 33% of principal carers reported that their caring role had brought them closer to the recipient of care while 22% reported a strain on their relationship.

Approximately equal proportions of principal carers of partners reported feeling closer to

Principal carers whose relationships were affected by their caring role(a), 1993

Effect on relationships	Principal carers of partners	Principal carers of parents	Principal carers of children	All principal carers(b)
	%	%	%	%
Strain on relationships				
With recipient of care	27.1	19.0	20.1	21.5
With partner(c)	..	9.5	19.1	..
With other family members	16.5	14.9	30.8	17.7
Lost contact with friends	23.7	16.4	16.7	19.3
Brought closer together				
With recipient of care	27.7	32.8	37.0	33.3
With partner(c)	..	3.0*	14.7	..
With other family members	10.5	8.7	12.7	10.0

(a) Effects on relationships not stated have been excluded from percentage calculations.
(b) Includes principal carers of other family members (eg brothers, sisters, aunts, uncles or grandparents) or non-family members.
(c) Partners who were not the recipients of care.

Source: *Survey of Disability, Ageing and Carers* (unpublished data)

their partners (28%) as felt a strain on their relationship (27%). However, these effects differed between men and women. 31% of men caring for their partner felt closer to their partner compared to 25% of women. 34% of women caring for a partner reported a strain on their relationship compared to 19% of men. Women caring for their partners who found a change at all were more likely to experience negative rather than positive effects on all their relationships.

Principal carers of parents had lower proportions reporting relationship strains with their partner and with other family members than did principal carers of partners or children. 10% reported a strain in relations with their partner and 15% reported a strain on relations with other family members.

37% of parents caring for a child felt closer to that child, while for 20% the relationship with the child was strained. A higher proportion of principal carers of children found their relationships with their partners (19%) and other family members (31%) strained than of other principal carers.

As principal carers modify their lifestyles to accommodate the caring role, they may lose touch with existing friends or their friends may change. Principal carers of partners were

How caring affects principal carers' well-being, 1993

Effect on physical and emotional well-being	Principal carers of partners	Principal carers of parents	Principal carers of children	All principal carers(a)
	%	%	%	%
No change	33.3	35.3	20.1	32.8
Feel satisfied	14.6	23.3	17.7	19.5
Feel weary, lack energy	28.4	21.5	41.2	27.3
Frequently worried, depressed, angry	30.4	28.0	44.7	31.0
Stress related illness	14.6	8.4	20.5	12.9
Total(b)	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**

(a) Includes principal carers of other family members (eg brothers, sisters, aunts, uncles or grandparents) or non-family members.
(b) Components do not add to total because principal carers may report more than one type of effect.

Source: *Focus on Families: Caring in Families* (4423.0)

Principal carers' main source of help with the caring role, 1993

Main source of help	Principal carers of partners	Principal carers of parents	Principal carers of children	All principal carers
	%	%	%	%
Received help	*28.3*	*62.7*	*62.4*	*47.7*
Partner	..	16.2	44.3	13.9
Other family member	17.4	29.7	9.4	19.9
Friend(a)	1.5*	4.6*	1.3*	3.5
Formal help	9.2	12.2	7.4*	10.3
No help	71.7	37.3	37.6	52.3
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**

(a) Includes neighbours and other help.

Source: *Survey of Disability, Ageing and Carers* (unpublished data)

most likely to have lost contact with their friends (24%) compared to principal carers of children (17%) and of parents (16%).

Physical and emotional well-being

In 1993, 67% of principal carers reported some change in their physical and emotional well-being as a result of their caring role. The effects varied according to the relationship between the carer and the recipient. Principal carers of children were more likely than other principal carers to have been frequently worried, depressed or angry (45%), to have felt weary or lacked energy (41%), and to have had a stress related illness (21%). Principal carers of partners were least likely than other principal carers to have felt satisfied.

Support for carers

Principal carers may need many types of support, such as practical, financial, or simply sympathetic understanding. The level of help that principal carers need may vary between individuals and over time. In 1993, less than half (48%) of principal carers received help with their caring roles from family, friends or formal organisations. Principal carers of partners were less likely to have received help (28%) than principal carers of parents (63%) or principal carers of children (62%). 44% of principal carers of children received their main help from their partner, while 30% of those who cared for a parent received their main help from a family member other than a partner. Because many principal carers care for their partners, the main source of help for principal carers overall was family members other than a partner.

Respite care services, such as home respite, day care respite or the peer support program, were used by 12% of principal carers.

Most principal carers do not receive any training for their caring role, and the majority do not belong to a carer support group. Principal carers of children represented only 17% of all principal carers, but 53% of them had received training for their caring role. In comparison, 25% of principal carers of partners had received training. This is because principal carers of children are more likely to come into contact with formal support groups through information provided by hospitals or child health clinics. Principal carers of partners are more likely to gradually increase their caring responsibilities over time without coming into contact with specialist support groups and may therefore be less likely to receive training or information about support groups.

Health

Health — national summary

HEALTH STATUS	Units	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994
Male life expectancy at birth	years	72.5	r72.3	r72.8	r73.0	73.1	73.3	73.9	74.4	74.5	75.0	75.0
Female life expectancy at birth	years	79.0	78.8	r79.1	79.5	79.5	79.6	80.1	80.4	80.4	80.9	80.9
Total number of deaths	'000	109.9	118.8	115.0	117.3	119.9	124.2	120.1	119.1	123.7	121.6	126.7
Crude death rate (per 1,000 population)	no.	7.1	7.5	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.4	7.0	6.9	7.1	6.9	7.1
Standardised death rate (per 1,000 population)	no.	r7.9	r8.2	r7.6	r7.6	r7.5	r7.6	r7.2	r6.9	r6.9	6.6	6.7
Infant mortality rate (per 1,000 live births)	no.	9.2	10.0	8.8	8.7	8.7	8.0	8.2	7.1	7.0	6.1	5.9
Perinatal mortality rate (per 1,000 live births)	no.	11.9	11.8	11.5	10.6	10.7	9.9	10.3	9.6	9.4	8.2	8.0

CAUSES OF DEATH	Units	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994
Ischaemic heart disease standardised death rate (per 100,000 population)	no.	220	225	213	208	199	200	186	175	177	162	161
Cancer standardised death rate (per 100,000 population)	no.	178	186	182	180	184	183	181	181	181	180	181
Road accident standardised death rate (per 100,000 population)	no.	17	19	19	17	19	17	15	13	12	11	11
Suicide standardised death rate (per 100,000 population)	no.	11	12	13	14	13	13	13	14	13	12	13
AIDS-related standardised death rate (per 100,000 population)	no.	na	na	na	na	1	2	3	3	4	4	4

RISK FACTORS	Units	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
Alcohol: apparent consumption per person per day	mls	31.5	31.8	30.4	30.3	29.8	29.2	28.0	26.9	26.0	p27.0	p26.9
Tobacco: apparent consumption per person per day	grams	6.7	6.5	6.1	6.0	5.7	5.8	5.4	5.4	4.8	4.4	nya
Total fats: apparent consumption per person per day	grams	57.5	57.4	56.3	55.8	55.4	54.5	53.7	53.7	52.2	nya	nya
Fully immunised children aged 3 months to 6 years (of all children 3 months to 6 years)	%	na	na	na	na	na	54.1	na	na	na	na	52.1

SERVICES	Units	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994
Average Medicare services processed per person	no.	na	7.1	7.5	7.8	8.0	8.3	8.3	8.2	8.6	9.8	10.4
Acute hospital beds per 1,000 population	no.	5.9	5.8	5.7	5.4	5.3	5.2	5.0	5.0	4.5	4.4	4.2
Average length of stay in hospital	days	6.7	6.7	6.5	6.3	6.2	5.9	5.6	5.1	4.8	4.8	4.7
Doctors (per 100,000 population)	no.	na	na	210	na	na	na	na	230	na	na	na

EXPENDITURE	Units	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994
Persons with private health insurance (of population)	%	50.0	47.7	48.8	48.3	47.0	45.5	44.5	43.7	41.0	39.5	37.2
Total health expenditure per person per year (1989-90 prices)	$	1 420	1 458	1 521	1 571	r1604	r1661	r1700	r1714	r1744	r1790	1 835
Total health expenditure as a proportion of GDP (1989-90 prices)	%	7.5	7.5	7.6	r7.7	r7.6	7.7	7.8	8.0	r8.3	r8.3	8.2

Reference periods: Risk factor data, services data except doctors per 100,000 population, and expenditure data are for the year ended 30 June.

Health — state summary

HEALTH STATUS	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Male life expectancy at birth	years	1994	74.9	75.6	74.8	75.1	75.6	73.2	69.1	76.7	75.0
Female life expectancy at birth	years	1994	80.9	81.2	80.9	81.3	81.2	79.8	73.6	81.5	80.9
Total number of deaths	'000	1994	44.8	32.4	21.7	11.7	10.3	3.9	0.8	1.2	126.7
Crude death rate (per 1,000 population)	no.	1994	7.4	7.2	6.8	8.0	6.1	8.3	4.5	4.1	7.1
Standardised death rate (per 1,000 population)	no.	1994	6.8	6.6	6.7	6.7	6.4	7.6	10.8	6.3	6.7
Infant mortality rate (per 1,000 live births)	no.	1994	6.3	5.1	6.2	4.7	5.6	7.5	11.3	4.7	5.9
Perinatal mortality rate (per 1,000 live births)	no.	1994	8.3	8.0	8.1	7.0	7.1	7.9	14.8	6.0	8.0

CAUSES OF DEATH	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Ischaemic heart disease standardised death rate (per 100,000 population)	no.	1994	163	151	173	166	150	174	179	143	161
Cancer standardised death rate (per 100,000 population)	no.	1994	178	187	177	180	179	198	227	175	181
Road accident standardised death rate (per 100,000 population)	no.	1994	10	9	13	11	14	12	23	10	11
Suicide standardised death rate (per 100,000 population)	no.	1994	13	11	14	11	13	15	* *	11	13
AIDS-related standardised death rate (per 100,000 population)	no.	1994	7	4	2	2	2	* *	* *	* *	4

RISK FACTORS	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
High risk drinkers (of persons 18 years and over)	%	1989–90	4.7	3.7	4.9	3.9	3.7	2.8	9.1	5.2	4.3
Current smokers (of persons 18 years and over)	%	1989–90	28.8	27.6	28.4	27.8	28.1	28.8	39.8	30.3	28.4
Acceptable weight (of person 18 years and over)	%	1989–90	48.3	48.3	47.3	46.5	48.2	48.2	40.7	52.8	48.0
Fully immunised children aged 3 months to 6 years (of all children 3 months to 6 years)	%	1995	53.9	51.2	47.5	49.7	59.3	43.0	53.5	63.5	52.1

SERVICES	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Average Medicare services processed per person	no.	1994–95	11.5	10.3	10.1	9.8	9.3	9.3	6.3	8.8	10.4
Acute hospital beds per 1,000 population	no.	1992–93	4.3	4.3	4.6	5.1	4.0	4.6	4.3	3.3	4.4
Average length of stay in hospital	days	1992–93	4.7	4.7	4.7	5.0	4.7	4.9	5.0	4.7	4.8
Doctors (per 100,000 population)	no.	1991	239	235	212	256	206	204	210	238	230

EXPENDITURE	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Persons with private health insurance (of population)(a)	%	1994–95	37.2	34.3	31.3	34.3	37.3	37.3	13.8	na	35.0

(a) The Australian Capital Territory is included in New South Wales. The Northern Territory figure is understated because some funds include Northern Territory members in other states.

Health — definitions and references

Acceptable weight — the estimates are based on Quetelet's body mass index (BMI), which is calculated as weight (in kilograms) divided by the square of height (in metres). Persons classified as acceptable weight had a BMI of 20.0–25.0.
Reference: National Health Survey: Health Risk Factors (4380.0)

Acute hospital beds per 1,000 population — total number of beds in all hospitals per 1,000 estimated mean resident population.
Reference: Department of Health, Housing and Community Services *Annual Report*

AIDS-related deaths — deaths where AIDS was determined to be the underlying cause.
Reference: Causes of Death (3303.0)

Alcohol: apparent consumption — millilitres of pure alcohol (not total alcoholic beverages) consumed divided by the population 15 and over. Apparent consumption of beer and spirits is based on the quantities on which excise duty was paid, and imports cleared for consumption. Apparent consumption of wine comprises quantities sold by winemakers and imports cleared for consumption. Home-made beer and wine is excluded.
Reference: Apparent Consumption of Foodstuffs and Nutrients, Australia (4306.0)

Apparent consumption — equals (commercial production + estimated home production + imports + opening stocks) minus (exports + usage for processed food + non-food usage + wastage + closing stocks) divided by the population.
Reference: Apparent Consumption of Foodstuffs and Nutrients, Australia (4306.0)

Average length of stay in hospital — the total number of occupied bed days in both public and private hospitals divided by the total number of admissions.
Reference: Australian Institute of Health and Welfare *Health Expenditure*

Average Medicare services processed — average number of services processed per person enrolled in Medicare.
Reference: Health Insurance Commission *Annual Report*

Cancer — malignant neoplasms.
Reference: Causes of Death, Australia (3303.0)

Crude death rate — number of deaths registered during the calendar year per 1,000 of the estimated resident population at 30 June of that year. For years prior to 1994, it is based on the mean estimated resident population for the calendar year.
Reference: Deaths, Australia (3302.0)

Current smokers — persons aged 18 years and over who smoke one or more manufactured (packet) cigarettes, roll-your-own cigarettes, cigars or pipes per day. Smoking excludes chewing tobacco and smoking of non-tobacco products.
Reference: National Health Survey: Health Risk Factors (4380.0)

Doctors per 100,000 population — the number of general medical practitioners and specialist medical practitioners per 100,000 mean estimated resident population.
Reference: Characteristics of Persons Employed in Health Occupations, Australia (4346.0)

Fetal death — the delivery of a child weighing at least 500 grams at delivery (or, when birthweight is unavailable, of at least 22 weeks gestation) which did not, at any time after delivery, breathe or show any other evidence of life such as a heartbeat.
Reference: Perinatal Deaths, Australia (3304.0)

Fully immunised — the proportion of children reported as having received all the required vaccinations for diphtheria, tetanus, poliomyelitis, whooping cough, measles and mumps for their age. The required vaccinations are based on the 1986 NH&MRC Standard Childhood Vaccination Schedule.
Reference: Children's Immunisation (4352.0)

High risk drinkers — men aged 18 and over who drank more than 75ml of absolute alcohol per day and women aged 18 and over who drank more than 50ml of absolute alcohol per day.
Reference: National Health Survey: Health Risk Factors (4380.0)

Infant mortality rate — the annual number of deaths of children under one year of age per 1,000 live births.
Reference: Deaths, Australia (3302.0)

Ischaemic heart disease — heart attack (acute myocardial infarction, coronary occlusion) and angina (angina pectoris).
Reference: Causes of Death (3303.0)

Life expectancy at birth — the average number of years a person might expect to live if the age-specific death rates of the given period continued throughout his or her lifetime.
Reference: Deaths, Australia (3302.0)

Live birth — the delivery of a child weighing at least 500 grams at delivery (or, when birthweight is unavailable, of at least 22 weeks gestation) who after being born, breathed or showed any other evidence of life such as a heartbeat.
Reference: Perinatal Deaths, Australia (3304.0)

Motor vehicle traffic accident
Reference: Causes of Death (3303.0)

Neonatal death — any child weighing at least 500 grams at delivery (or, when birthweight is unavailable, of at least 22 weeks gestation) who was born alive (as defined under live birth) and who died within 28 days of birth.
Reference: Perinatal Deaths, Australia (3304.0)

Perinatal mortality rate — the number of fetal and neonatal deaths per 1,000 live births and fetal deaths combined.
Reference: Perinatal Deaths, Australia (3304.0)

Persons with private health insurance — proportion of the total population with private basic hospital insurance. The source of these data has changed since the previous edition.
Reference: Private Health Insurance Administration Council *Annual Report* 1994–95

Standardised death rate — the overall death rate that would have prevailed in a standard population if it had experienced at each age the death rates of the population being studied. The standard population used is the 1991 Australian population.
Reference: Deaths, Australia (3302.0)

Suicide
Reference: Causes of Death (3303.0)

Tobacco: apparent consumption — grams of tobacco consumed divided by the population aged 15 and over. Apparent consumption of tobacco is based on the quantity on which import duty and excise was paid and does not include duty or excise free tobacco.
Reference: Foreign Trade Microfiche ME14

Total fats: apparent consumption — the total fat content of food apparently consumed, in grams, divided by the total population.
Reference: Apparent Consumption of Foodstuffs and Nutrients, Australia (4306.0)

Total health expenditure as a proportion of GDP — total health expenditure as a proportion of gross domestic product at constant 1989–90 prices.
Reference: Australian Institute of Health and Welfare *Health Expenditure*

Total health expenditure per person — total health expenditure per person in Australian dollars at constant 1989–90 prices.
Reference: Australian Institute of Health and Welfare *Health Expenditure*

The health of Indigenous people

HEALTH STATUS

Despite the health of Indigenous people being poorer than that of non-Indigenous people, in 1994 most Indigenous people reported that they were in good health.

By most health status measures, the health of Indigenous people is poorer than that of non-Indigenous people. The life expectancy at birth of Indigenous people is estimated to be 15–20 years less than that of non-Indigenous people, and their death rates are more than double those of non-Indigenous people[1]. Indigenous people are more likely than non-Indigenous people to suffer from a range of diseases such as diabetes mellitus, respiratory disorders, ear disease, eye disorders, and some cancers[2]. Disorders of growth and nutrition are prevalent among Indigenous people. However, there have been improvements in some areas of health for Indigenous people since the 1970s[3].

Causes of death

After standardising for the difference in the age structure of the population, the Indigenous death rate in 1994 was 1,959 per 100,000 population compared to 710 per 100,000 for the total population. Ischaemic heart disease was the leading cause of Indigenous deaths, followed by respiratory diseases, cancer and stroke. These four causes were also the main causes of death in the total population, but in a different order with cancer leading and respiratory diseases fourth.

Causes of death per 100,000 population, 1994

Cause of death	Indigenous people(a)	All people
	rate	rate
Ischaemic heart disease	377.4	171.4
Respiratory diseases	267.0	55.8
Cancer	237.2	188.7
Stroke	231.9	72.0
Diabetes	139.2	15.4
Other heart disease	125.8	43.1
Road traffic accidents	47.9	11.0
Suicide	20.5	12.7
All deaths	**1 958.9**	**710.2**

(a) Indigenous deaths data are for WA, SA, NT and ACT only. Indigenous age-specific death rates are standardised to the 1994 total Australian population.

Source: *Causes of Death, Australia* (unpublished data)

Indigenous health

Self-assessed health status refers to the overall level of health reported by Indigenous people aged 13 and over. For people aged less than 13, information was provided by the child's parent or a responsible adult member of the household. Self-assessed health status is not always a reliable indicator of true health status.

Recent illness conditions refer to conditions (illness, injury or disability) experienced in the two weeks prior to interview. They may include long-term conditions experienced in the period.

Long-term illness conditions refer to conditions which had lasted for six months or more.

Health actions refer to activities such as visiting a doctor, taking medication, or changing daily routines in the two weeks prior to interview.

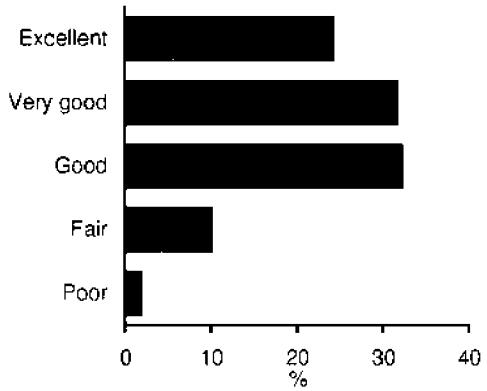
Capital city comprises all state and territory capital city statistical divisions. *Other urban* comprises all centres with a total population of 1,000 and over, excluding capital cities. *Rural* comprises rural areas and towns with a total population of less than 1,000 people. Most remote Indigenous communities are included in this category.

Self-assessed health status

In 1994, 32% of Indigenous people reported their health as good and 32% reported it as very good. A further 24% reported their health as excellent. Indigenous men were more likely than Indigenous women to report their health as excellent or very good.

A person's self-assessed health status varies according to many factors, such as their awareness and expectations of health and their level of health relative to other people in their community. However, there is also a link between self-assessed health status and illness. In 1994, Indigenous people who reported suffering an illness were more likely than those who had not reported an illness to assess their health status as fair or poor. Among those who reported suffering an illness condition, those with a long-term illness were more likely than those with a recent illness to report their health status as fair or poor.

Self-assessed health status of Indigenous people(a), 1994



(a) Percentage calculations exclude self-assessed health status not stated.

Source: *National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Survey, 1994: Detailed findings* (4190.0)

Illness experienced

In 1994, 41% of Indigenous people reported that they had experienced a recent illness. Men and women reported similar rates of occurrence of recent illness. The recent illness conditions that people reported may have been related to a long-term illness condition.

The most commonly reported recent illness conditions were diseases of the respiratory system (35%). This includes conditions such as asthma, bronchitis and emphysema, as well as minor illnesses such as colds and sore throats.

In 1994, 35% of Indigenous people reported that they suffered from a long-term illness condition. The most common long-term illness condition was asthma (13%), followed by ear or hearing problems (9%) and high blood pressure (6%). Females were slightly more likely than males to report suffering from most long-term illness conditions.

The type of illness that people suffer can be affected by their participation in health risk behaviours. For example, diseases of the respiratory system, which were the most

The National Aboriginal Health Strategy[4]

The overall aim of the National Aboriginal Health Strategy (NAHS) is to provide all Indigenous people with the same level of access to health services and facilities as other Australians by the year 2001. The specific goals of the strategy are:

- to improve health standards and raise life expectancy;
- to provide better access to health services, including hospitals and health clinics;
- to provide better housing;
- to provide power, water, sewerage and roads in communities;
- to provide a high level of participation in health decision-making processes, including representation on hospital boards and in national forums;
- to provide training and employment for Indigenous people in health-related work;
- to provide better support in the areas of information, education, training, research and evaluation;
- to establish new community-controlled Indigenous health organisations and upgrade existing ones;
- to decrease the amount of substance abuse;
- for state and territory governments to provide culturally appropriate drug and alcohol counselling services, complemented by commonwealth initiatives in the prevention area.

Indigenous people who experienced a recent illness, 1994

Type of illness experienced	Males	Females	Persons
	%	%	%
Diseases of the respiratory system	33.6	35.4	34.5
Symptoms, signs and ill-defined conditions	16.6	19.7	18.2
Injury and poisoning	16.0	8.6	12.1
Diseases of the circulatory system	9.4	12.3	10.9
Diseases of the nervous system and sense organs	9.9	9.7	9.8
Diseases of the skin and subcutaneous tissue	9.2	8.4	8.9
Diseases of the musculoskeletal system and connective tissue	9.2	7.8	8.4
Total Indigenous people who experienced a recent illness(a)	**39.9**	**42.5**	**41.2**

(a) Includes people who suffered other illness conditions. People may have reported more than one type of illness.

Source: *National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Survey, 1994: Detailed findings* (4190.0)

Indigenous people who experienced selected long-term illness conditions, 1994

Type of illness condition	Males	Females	Persons
	%	%	%
Asthma	12.3	14.6	13.5
Ear or hearing problems	10.2	8.5	9.4
High blood pressure	5.6	7.2	6.4
Skin problems	5.5	6.4	6.0
Chest problems	5.2	5.1	5.2
Heart problems	4.1	4.3	4.2
Diabetes	3.5	4.8	4.1
Kidney problems	2.4	3.7	3.1
Eye problems(a)	2.7	2.1	2.4

(a) Excludes eye problems which can be corrected by glasses.

Source: *National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Survey, 1994: Detailed findings* (4190.0)

common recent illnesses among Indigenous people, are affected by health risk behaviours such as smoking. In 1994, half of all Indigenous people aged 13 and over were smokers (see *Health risk factors of Indigenous people* pp. 62–65).

The type of illness that a person suffers also varies according to their age. For example, long-term illnesses such as heart problems, diabetes and high blood pressure were most common among Indigenous people aged 45 and over. The presence of such conditions may also be related to factors such as poor diet and lack of exercise.

Health actions

In 1994, 44% of Indigenous people took some health action, such as seeing a health professional or taking medication, in the two weeks prior to the survey. The most common action was taking medication (32%). This was followed by consulting a doctor (19%) and reducing daily activities (13%). Females were more likely than males to have undertaken a health action (47% compared to 42%).

Indigenous people living in capital cities were more likely than those living in other urban or rural areas to take a health action. This may be due to better access to health facilities, as well as to higher levels of health education among Indigenous people living in capital cities.

Health actions undertaken by Indigenous people, 1994

Type of health action taken	Capital cities	Other urban	Rural	Total
	%	%	%	%
Used medication	40.9	30.9	25.8	32.1
Consulted doctor	26.3	17.9	13.1	18.8
Reduced daily activities	16.8	12.2	9.2	12.6
Visited emergency/ outpatients clinic	5.8	8.5	8.8	7.8
Consulted Aboriginal health worker	2.7	4.8	10.6	6.0
Consulted nurse	3.5	4.1	8.6	5.3
Used bush medicine	3.0	2.5	6.1	3.7
Was admitted to hospital	1.8	2.5	3.1	2.5
Total who took a health action(a)	**53.0**	**42.1**	**39.8**	**44.4**

(a) Percentages do not add to total because people may undertake more than one type of health action.

Source: *National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Survey, 1994: Detailed findings* (4190.0)

The actions undertaken by Indigenous people also varied according to geographic location. Indigenous people living in rural areas were less likely to consult a doctor than those living in capital cities or other urban areas. However, they were more likely to visit an emergency or outpatients clinic, consult an Aboriginal health worker or consult a nurse. This may be due to differences in access to various types of health services. People in rural areas are less likely than those living in capital cities or other urban areas to have access to a doctor.

Access to health services

In 1994, 89% of Indigenous households had permanent access (access at least 3 days per week) within 25km to a nurse, 82% had access to a doctor, 80% to a baby health service and 69% to a dentist.

Indigenous people living in rural areas were less likely to have permanent access within 25km to health services than those living in urban areas. In 1994, 41% of Indigenous households in rural areas had access to a

Households with access(a) to health services within 25km, 1994

Type of health service	Capital city		Other urban		Rural		Total	
	Permanent	Visiting	Permanent	Visiting	Permanent	Visiting	Permanent	Visiting
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Nurse	93.0	6.1	96.5	1.8	70.0	8.4	89.1	4.8
Doctor/GP	95.7	4.3	94.8	3.8	41.3	38.9	82.4	12.3
Baby health services	96.9	2.1	86.2	10.7	45.0	32.7	80.0	13.1
Dentist	96.3	* *	75.8	9.2	18.5	24.8	69.0	9.9
Aboriginal health worker	74.8	7.8	73.5	10.9	47.7	16.5	67.8	11.2
Mental health services	83.1	4.3	58.8	15.6	13.6	10.1	56.1	10.6
Flying medical services	. .	2.7	. .	22.8	. .	43.2	. .	21.0

(a) Permanent access is available at least 3 days per week and visiting access is available between 2 days per week and once a month. This question was asked on the community form, not on the household form, and the answers were applied to all the households in the community.

Source: *National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Survey, 1994: Detailed findings* (4190.0)

doctor, compared to 96% of Indigenous households in capital cities and 95% in other urban areas. However, the majority (70%) of Indigenous households in rural areas had access to a nurse.

Many people who do not have permanent access to various health services have visiting access, which is access between 2 days per week and once a month. Visiting access is particularly important in rural areas where 39% of households had visiting access within 25km to a doctor or GP, and 33% to baby health services.

An important type of visiting health care, especially in rural areas, are flying medical services. In 1994, 21% of Indigenous people had access to flying medical services. As expected, a greater proportion of Indigenous people in rural areas (43%) than those in capital cities (3%) or other urban areas (23%) had access to flying medical services.

The availability of transport also affects a person's access to various health services. For example, a person who has no transport and lives 25km from a permanent health service is likely to have more difficulty accessing the service than a person who lives further away but has a car or regular public transport service available. In addition, the type of health service a person has access to may not be an accurate measure of the service they obtain. For example, a nurse working in an area where there are only limited health services may perform some duties that another health professional would normally perform. Therefore, if a person does not have access to a baby health service they may still have access to a doctor or nurse who can provide similar services.

Attitudes to health services

In 1994, most of Indigenous people aged 13 and over reported that they had no problems with their local health service. Of those who did report problems, the most commonly reported problem was having to wait too long for treatment (55%), followed by inadequate facilities or staffing (22%) and inadequate hours of operation (14%).

Females were more likely than males to report problems with their local health services. This is probably because females are more likely to use their local health services. People in rural areas were more likely than people in the capital cities or other urban areas, to report problems with their local health services. This is related to lower levels of access to health services in rural areas.

Endnotes

1 Australian Institute of Health and Welfare (1995) *Australian health trends, 1995*.

2 National Health Strategy (1992) *Enough to make you sick: How income and environment affect health* Research Paper No. 1, September 1992.

3 Reid, J. & Trompf, P. (1991) *The Health of Aboriginal Australia* Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

4 Australian Institute of Health and Welfare (1992) *Aboriginal Health Information Bulletin, No. 17*.

Accidental death of children

CAUSES OF DEATH

In 1994, accidents were the most common cause of death among children aged 1–14 years.

Accidents are a major cause of preventable death among children. Understanding the nature and circumstances of childhood accidents can assist those developing accident prevention strategies and programs. Some accident prevention strategies already in place in Australia include legislation on bicycle helmet use, swimming pool fencing and lower speed limits in school zones.

Kidsafe, formerly known as the Child Accident Prevention Foundation of Australia, was established in the International Year of the Child (1979). Its purpose is to focus on the prevention of unintentional child injury and death. The organisation contributes to the development of Australian standards, and provides policy advice to various government departments and ministers, other agencies and the public[1].

Accidental deaths

In 1994, 13% of child deaths were caused by accidents. However, this proportion appears low due to the relatively large numbers of perinatal deaths and deaths due to congenital anomalies among children in their first year of life. Among children aged 1–14, accidents were the leading cause of death, accounting for one-third of all deaths in this age group.

Selected causes of death of children, 1994

Cause of death	Under 1 year	1–4 years	5–9 years	10–14 years	Total
	no.	no.	no.	no.	no.
Perinatal conditions	684	7	1	0	692
Congenital anomalies	454	46	15	21	536
Accidents	22	118	69	82	291
Malignant neoplasms	6	46	51	59	162
Diseases of the nervous system	35	45	22	20	122
Respiratory diseases	25	19	3	10	57
All deaths	**1 512**	**361**	**196**	**248**	**2 317**

Source: *Causes of Death, Australia* (unpublished data)

Accidental death

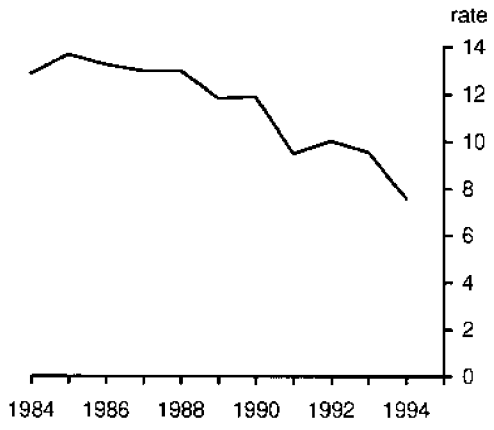
The data presented in this review are from the ABS Causes of Death collection, which is compiled from data provided by state and territory Registrars of Births, Deaths and Marriages. In this collection *accidental death* refers to deaths from accidents or poisonings which occurred without obvious human intention to produce them. It includes deaths due to motor vehicle accidents, accidental poisoning, accidental falls, drowning, fires and inhalation or injestion of foreign bodies such as buttons, marbles etc. It comprises International Classification of Diseases codes E800–E929.

A *child* is any person under the age of 15.

In comparison 3% of deaths among adults were accidental.

Between 1984 and 1994, 4,724 children died as a result of accidents. The death rate from accidents among children fell from 13 to 8 per 100,000 children over the period. This decrease was largest among children aged 0–4. In this age group the death rate due to accidents fell from 19 to 11 deaths per 100,000 children. This is mainly due to decreases in the number of children aged 0–4 dying from motor vehicle traffic accidents and from accidents involving submersion, suffocation and foreign bodies. These decreases are probably linked to the

Accidental deaths per 100,000 children



Sources: *Causes of Death, Australia* (unpublished data); *Estimated Resident Population, by Sex and Age, States and Territories of Australia* (3201.0)

Child accidental death rate(a), 1992–94

State(b)	0–4 years	5–9 years	10–14 years	Total
	rate	rate	rate	rate
NSW	12.2	6.4	6.3	8.4
Vic.	11.4	4.8	5.5	7.3
Qld	17.5	8.2	9.4	11.7
SA	13.1	8.2	6.0	9.1
WA	14.1	5.1	7.4	8.8
Tas.	13.4	9.2	7.4	9.9
NT	35.5	16.8	13.9	22.6
ACT	14.6	9.0	4.5	9.4
Australia	**13.6**	**6.6**	**6.9**	**9.0**

(a) Average annual deaths per 100,000 children.
(b) Refers to state/territory of registration.

Sources: *Causes of Death, Australia* (unpublished data); *Estimated Resident Population by Sex and Age, States and Territories of Australia* (3201.0)

introduction of legislation on the use of baby capsules in cars, as well as laws in most states and territories making fencing around swimming pools compulsory.

Who dies?

In 1994, almost half (48%) of all children who died from accidents were aged 0–4. This was followed by those aged 10–14, who made up 28% of all accidental deaths. The majority of children who died from accidents were boys (61%). This was true for all age groups and most types of accidents.

Between 1992 and 1994, child accidental deaths were most common in the Northern Territory with an average annual rate of 23 per 100,000 children. This high rate is mainly due to the number of deaths caused by submersion, suffocation and foreign bodies. The next highest rate was 12 deaths per 100,000 children in Queensland. Victoria had the lowest death rate from accidents at 7 per 100,000 children. In every state and territory children under 5 were the most likely to die from an accident.

Type of accidental death

Motor vehicle traffic accidents are the most common cause of all accidental deaths in Australia (see *Motor vehicle traffic accidents* pp. 168–172). In 1994, 127 children were killed in motor vehicle traffic accidents, accounting for 44% of all child accidental

International comparison

In 1992, Australia had a child accidental death rate of 9 per 100,000 children. Of the countries selected, the child accidental death rate for New Zealand was highest, at 15 per 100,000 children in 1991, followed by USA with a rate of 13 per 100,000 in 1990. Hong Kong had the lowest rate at 6 per 100,000 children in 1991.

Accidental deaths per 100,000 children, selected countries

Country	Year	Deaths
		rate
Australia	**1992**	**9.2**
Canada	1991	9.1
France	1991	10.6
Hong Kong	1991	5.6
Italy	1990	6.5
Japan	1992	8.0
New Zealand	1991	14.8
Sweden	1990	5.0
UK	1992	6.0
USA	1990	13.3

Source: World Health Organisation (1993) *World Health Statistics Annual*

Accidental deaths of children, 1994

Type of accidental death	0–4 years	5–9 years	10–14 years	Total
	%	%	%	%
Motor vehicle traffic accidents	27.9	53.6	62.2	43.6
Accidents caused by submersion, suffocation and foreign bodies	45.7	20.3	7.3	28.9
Accidents caused by fire and flames	10.0	10.1	4.9	8.6
Motor vehicle non-traffic accidents(a)	6.4	2.9	3.7	4.8
Accidental poisoning	1.4	0.0	3.6	1.7
Accidental falls	0.7	1.4	2.4	1.4
Other	7.9	11.6	15.9	11.0
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**

(a) Refers to any motor vehicle accident which occurs entirely in any place other than a public highway.

Source: *Causes of Death, Australia* (unpublished data)

deaths. 32% of these children were killed in accidents involving a motor vehicle and a pedestrian, 27% were killed in accidents involving two motor vehicles and 11% were killed in accidents involving a motor vehicle and another vehicle, such as a bicycle.

Children killed in accidents involving a motor vehicle and a pedestrian were most likely to be aged 10–14 (39%). This was followed by those aged 5–9 (37%). Children killed in accidents involving two motor vehicles were most likely to be aged 0–4 (50%).

The second most common cause of accidental deaths among children was submersion, suffocation and foreign bodies. In 1994, 84 children died from accidents caused by submersion, suffocation and foreign bodies, accounting for 29% of child accidental deaths. 76% of these deaths were due to drowning. 75% of children who died from drowning were aged 0–4. The death rate for drowning among children has decreased over the past decade, from 2.5 deaths per 100,000 children in 1984 to 1.7 deaths in 1994. This decrease was largest among those aged 0–4, from 5.7 in 1984 to 3.7 in 1994.

In 1994, the majority of child deaths due to drowning occurred when a child fell or wandered into water (58%). 62% of child deaths from falling or wandering into water occurred in a swimming pool, and 24% occurred in a lake, lagoon, dam or water-hole.

Child deaths from drowning or submersion, 1994

Type of accidental drowning	0–4 years	5–9 years	10–14 years	Total
	no.	no.	no.	no.
Fell or wandered into water	34	3	0	37
Swimming, paddling or wading	7	7	3	17
Drowned in bathtub	7	0	1	8
Other	0	1	1	2
Total	**48**	**11**	**5**	**64**

Source: *Causes of Death, Australia* (unpublished data)

The second most common type of death from drowning occurred when a child was swimming, paddling or wading (27%). 47% of child deaths from swimming, paddling or wading occurred in a lake, lagoon, dam or water-hole, and 35% occurred in a swimming pool.

Endnote

1 Department of Human Services and Health and Australian Institute of Health and Welfare (1994) *Injury prevention and control in Australia: a review of current programs and activities*.

Health risk factors and Indigenous people

RISK FACTORS

The lower standard of health of Indigenous people compared to non-Indigenous people may be partly due to their higher exposure to health risk factors.

The overall health of Indigenous Australians is worse than that of the total population (see *The health of Indigenous people* pp. 55–58). Health risk factors such as the use of tobacco, alcohol and other drugs, as well as inadequate diet and nutrition, impact on people's health. Examining the link between risk factors and illness can lead to the development of strategies to improve health.

In the opinion of Indigenous people, the abuse of alcohol and other substances is one of their major health problems. The National Aboriginal Health Strategy includes a series of targets aimed at reducing this and other health risk behaviour[1].

Perceived health risks

In 1994, of the health risk factors listed, Indigenous people most commonly identified alcohol as a problem in their local area (59%). This was followed by drugs (30%), and diet/nutrition (20%). A similar proportion of males and females reported drugs as a health problem in their local area. However, males were slightly more likely than females to report alcohol as a problem (60% compared to 58%) while females were slightly more likely than males to report diet/nutrition as a health problem (22% compared to 18%).

People aged 18–44 were more likely than those in other age groups to perceive alcohol (62%) and drugs (32%) as a problem in their local area. Those aged 35–54 were more likely than people in other age groups to report diet and nutrition (25%) as a health problem in their local area. This may be because many people have family responsibilities at this age.

Indigenous people's perceived health risk factors(a), 1994

Age	Alcohol	Drugs	Diet/ nutrition	Other substances
	%	%	%	%
13–17	49.5	30.0	12.2	4.9
18–24	63.4	32.8	16.3	4.8
25–34	61.5	31.4	21.2	6.0
35–44	62.6	33.0	25.7	6.4
45–54	58.1	28.7	24.7	8.0
55–64	56.9	21.2	22.7	3.7*
65 & over	51.9	16.8	17.0	3.2*
Total	**59.1**	**30.3**	**19.7**	**5.6**
	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total(b)	**114.3**	**58.6**	**38.0**	**10.8**

(a) Refers to the proportion in each age group who perceived the health risk factors listed to be a problem in their local area. People could identify more than one risk factor. Percentage calculations exclude perceived health risk factors not stated. Data exclude prisoners.
(b) Total people who identified each health risk factor as a problem in their local area.

Source: *National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Survey, 1994* (unpublished data)

Health risk factors

Health risk factors are those factors which increase the chance an individual has of developing an illness or injury. Health risk factors include tobacco and alcohol consumption, lack of exercise, poor diet, low or excess weight and exposure to accidental injury. In this review the population refers to people aged 13 and over.

Care should be taken when considering the link between risk factors and illness conditions. People suffering from an illness may not be currently engaging in any health risk behaviours. However, they may have engaged in health risk behaviours before they developed the illness condition.

This review presents data on the proportion of Indigenous people who reported being current smokers and drinkers. Strictly comparable data are not available for the entire Australian population. However, to give an indication of whether Indigenous rates are high or low in comparison to the general population, Population Survey Monitor (PSM) data can be used. In May 1994, the PSM collected data on the smoking and drinking behaviour of people aged 18 and over. It found that 24% of people were smokers and 58% of people had consumed alcohol in the previous week.

Capital city comprises all state and territory capital city statistical divisions. *Other urban* comprises all centres with a total population of 1,000 and over, excluding capital cities. *Rural* comprises rural areas and towns with a total population of less than 1,000 people. Most remote Indigenous communities are included in this category.

Period since Indigenous people last consumed alcohol, 1994

Period since last consumed alcohol	Aged 13–17	Aged 18–24	Aged 25–34	Aged 35–44	Aged 45–54	Aged 55–64	Aged 65 & over	Total
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Total who consumed alcohol(a)	*28.5*	*74.5*	*73.7*	*72.2*	*60.4*	*47.2*	*34.1*	*61.7*
One week or less ago	9.2	48.8	48.4	49.6	40.6	31.1	25.9	39.4
Over 1 week to under 1 month ago	8.2	12.8	12.7	9.7	11.1	7.9	4.2*	10.7
1 month to under 3 months ago	4.2	5.6	4.8	5.2	4.1	3.5*	3.1*	4.7
3 months to under 12 months ago	7.0	7.3	8.0	7.7	4.5	4.7	* *	6.8
Total who did not consume alcohol	71.5	25.5	26.3	27.8	39.6	52.8	65.9	38.3
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total people	**33.7**	**41.7**	**51.5**	**33.6**	**18.6**	**10.8**	**7.6**	**197.5**

(a) Refers to people who drank in the previous 12 months.

Source: *National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Survey, 1994* (unpublished data)

Alcohol use

Excessive consumption of alcohol is a major risk factor for many illnesses. In the 1994 National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Survey information was not collected on level of alcohol consumption. Indigenous people were asked the period of time since they had last consumed alcohol. 62% of Indigenous people reported that they had consumed alcohol in the previous year. Males were more likely than females to report that they had consumed alcohol (69% compared to 55%).

In 1994, 29% of Indigenous people aged 13–17 reported that they had consumed alcohol in the previous year. This rose to 74% for people aged 18–34, and decreased to 34% for those aged 65 and over. This pattern is similar for the total population (see Australian Social Trends 1995 pp. 62–65 *Alcohol use*).

In 1994, 39% of Indigenous people reported that they had consumed alcohol in the previous week. This represented almost two-thirds (64%) of all Indigenous people who had consumed alcohol in the previous year suggesting that most people who consumed alcohol did so regularly. Almost half of all Indigenous people aged 18–44 had consumed alcohol in the previous week (49%).

Tobacco use

Tobacco use is recognised as a major preventable cause of disease, disability and death. In 1994, 50% of Indigenous people aged 13 and over said they were smokers. Males were more likely than females to smoke (54% compared to 46%).

Tobacco consumption among Indigenous people varies by age. In 1994, 22% of Indigenous people aged 13–17 reported being smokers. This rose to 63% for those aged 25–34, then decreased to 25% for those aged 65 and over.

Proportion of Indigenous people who smoke(a), 1994

Age	Males	Females	Persons
	%	%	%
13–17	22.6	21.8	22.2
18–24	61.4	53.4	57.5
25–34	66.7	59.7	63.3
35–44	61.7	53.1	57.3
45–54	53.6	45.1	49.3
55–64	46.5	29.9	38.0
65 & over	38.0	16.1	25.1
Total	**53.8**	**46.0**	**49.9**
	'000	'000	'000
Total smokers	**52.6**	**45.6**	**98.2**

(a) Smokers refer to all people who reported smoking cigarettes. Percentage calculations exclude smoker status not stated.

Source: *National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Survey, 1994* (unpublished data)

Smoking status of Indigenous people who had a long-term illness, 1994

Type of illness experienced	Smoker(a)	Non-smoker	Total(b)
	%	%	%
Asthma	12.3	13.2	12.8
High blood pressure	9.0	10.6	9.8
Diabetes	5.5	7.0	6.2
Chest problems	7.4	4.5	6.0
Heart problems	4.7	6.3	5.5
Kidney problems	4.7	3.5	4.1
Total who had a long-term illness(c)	**38.4**	**39.0**	**38.7**
	'000	'000	'000
Total who had a long-term illness	**37.7**	**38.5**	**76.4**

(a) Refers to all people who reported smoking cigarettes.
(b) Includes smoker status not stated.
(c) Includes other long-term illnesses. Components do not add to totals because a person may experience more than one type of illness.

Source: *National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Survey, 1994* (unpublished data)

In 1994, smokers and non-smokers were about equally likely to report experiencing a long-term illness. This may be due to people giving up smoking when they develop an illness. It is also associated with long-term illnesses occurring at older ages, when people are less likely to be smokers.

Diet

People's diets are a major determinant of their health status. Many Indigenous people suffer from a range of health problems which may be linked to inadequate diet. They may also lack a secure, affordable, quality food supply, especially people in remote communities[2]. In 1994, 5% of Indigenous people aged 13 and over reported that they had gone without food for one day or more during the previous four weeks.

Of those people who went without food, 39% did so for 1–3 days and 34% for 4–6 days. 16% did not state the length of time they went without food. Indigenous people living in rural areas were more likely than those in capital cities or other urban areas to go without food. In 1994, over half (52%) of all people who went without food were living in rural areas.

Indigenous people who went without food, 1994

Geographic location	Length of time people went without food(a) 1–3 days	4–6 days	Over 6 days	Total (b)
	%	%	%	%
Capital city	23.6	6.0*	30.1*	23.6
Other urban	33.2	18.1	13.1*	24.3
Rural	43.1	75.8	56.8	52.1
Total(c)	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total people who went without food	**4.2**	**3.7**	**1.2**	**10.8**

(a) Refers to length of time people went without food in the previous four weeks. This question was asked on the household form, and the answers were applied to all individuals in the household.
(b) Includes period without food not stated.

Source: *National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Survey, 1994* (unpublished data)

Indigenous people may go without food for many reasons. In 1994, the most common reason reported was not having enough money, reported by 92% of people who went without food.

Breastfeeding is an important health issue for children. Often the growth of Indigenous children is impeded by infection and by poor nutritional intake. Promotion of breastfeeding is the primary strategy to ensure adequate growth in the first six months of life[1].

In 1994, 71% of all Indigenous children aged 0–12 either were being or had been breastfed. The proportion of children who either were being or had been breastfed was highest among those aged under 2 years (76%). It was lowest among those aged 12 (63%). This indicates increased participation in breastfeeding among Indigenous people over time.

Relative weight

Being overweight or obese is associated with increased morbidity and mortality from non-insulin dependent diabetes mellitus, coronary heart disease, hypertension, gall bladder disease, and some types of cancers[2].

Relative weight(a) of Indigenous people, by long-term illness experienced, 1994

Type of illness experienced	Underweight	Acceptable weight	Overweight	Obese	Total(b)
	%	%	%	%	%
Total who had a long-term illness(c)	*37.0*	*36.1*	*41.6*	*47.8*	*38.7*
Asthma	13.0	11.7	12.8	15.6	12.8
Ear or hearing problems	9.8	8.8	12.5	12.4	10.0
High blood pressure	2.4	5.7	12.1	17.8	9.8
Diabetes	0.8*	3.7	7.0	10.9	6.2
Chest problems	5.5	6.2	7.0	5.6	6.0
Skin problems	6.1	6.0	5.9	7.6	5.9
Heart problems	4.5	3.9	6.7	7.6	5.5
Kidney problems	4.0	3.3	4.6	4.6	4.1
Eye problems(d)	2.4	2.8	3.8	3.4	3.0
Total who did not have a long-term illness	63.0	63.9	58.4	52.2	61.3
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total people	**22.2**	**49.3**	**42.3**	**33.2**	**197.5**

(a) Relative weight is calculated using a body mass index (BMI) score, which is a person's weight in kilograms divided by the square of their height in metres. Underweight refers to a BMI of less than 20; acceptable weight refers to a BMI of 20 to 25; overweight refers to a BMI of over 25 to 30; and obese refers to a BMI greater than 30.
(b) Includes weight not stated.
(c) Includes other long-term illnesses. Components do not add to total because people may report more than one type of illness.
(d) Excludes eye problems which can be corrected by glasses.

Source: *National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Survey, 1994* (unpublished data)

In 1994, of Indigenous people who were measured, 34% were of acceptable weight, 15% were underweight, 29% were overweight and the remaining 23% were obese. Males were more likely than females to be of acceptable weight (35% compared to 32%). Indigenous people were less likely than all Australians to be of acceptable weight. In 1989–90 the National Health Survey found that 50% of people aged 18 and over were of acceptable weight, 12% were underweight, 29% were overweight and the remaining 9% were obese.

In 1994, Indigenous people who were obese were more likely than others to report a long-term illness. 48% of obese people and 42% of overweight people said they suffered a long-term illness, compared to 36% of people of acceptable weight and 37% of people who were underweight. People who were overweight or obese were more likely to report suffering from diabetes, heart problems and high blood pressure than those who were of acceptable weight or underweight.

Endnotes

1 National Aboriginal Health Strategy Working Party (1989) *A national Aboriginal health strategy*.

2 Department of Health, Housing and Community Services (1993) *Goals and targets for Australia's health in the year 2000 and beyond*, University of Sydney.

Medicare: the first ten years

HEALTH SERVICES

Use of Medicare services increased between 1984–85 and 1993–94 from an average of 7 per person per year to 10.

The federal government introduced Medicare, Australia's national health insurance scheme, in February 1984. Medicare provides free access to hospital services for all Australian residents, and benefits to help meet the cost of a range of medical services. Medicare is partly funded by a tax levy. Benefits payable under the scheme are administered by the Health Insurance Commission (HIC). In 1993–94 the HIC processed 180 million services and paid out $5.4 billion in benefits[1].

Since the introduction of Medicare, private health insurance funds have mainly concentrated on providing benefits for hospital and medical practitioner services received by private patients in private and public hospitals[2].

Increasing use of Medicare

There has been increasing use of Medicare services since its inception. The average number of Medicare services used per person in a year increased by 41%, from 7 services in 1984–85 to 10 in 1993–94.

Rates are higher for females than males. In 1993–94 females used on average 12 services each while males used 8. The difference between the average number of services used by males and females has slowly increased over the past ten years. In 1984–85 females used on average 3 more services per year than males.

The increase in use of services per person is due mainly to real increases with an additional effect of population ageing (older people make greater use of medical services). The 41% increase (from 7.2 to 10.2) reduces by 4 percentage points, to 37%, when adjusted to compensate for the change in age structure of the population over that period (age standardisation).

Average number of Medicare services used per person

Year	Males	Females	Persons	Age standardised(a)
	rate	rate	rate	rate
1984–85	5.6	8.8	7.2	7.4
1985–86	5.9	9.3	7.6	7.8
1986–87	6.2	9.7	8.0	8.1
1987–88	6.4	10.0	8.2	8.3
1988–89	6.7	10.4	8.6	8.6
1989–90	6.8	10.4	8.6	8.6
1990–91	6.8	10.3	8.5	8.6
1991–92	7.2	10.9	9.0	9.0
1992–93	7.8	11.8	9.8	9.8
1993–94	8.1	12.2	10.2	10.1

(a) Standardised to the 1991 age structure.

Source: Health Insurance Commission *Annual Reports; Australian Demographic Statistics* (3101.0)

Medicare benefits

Medicare determines a scheduled fee for each service that comes under the scheme. Medicare refunds 85% of the scheduled fee for out-of-hospital services (medical and optometrical) and 75% of the scheduled fee for professional services provided to private patients in public or private hospitals. Some service providers bill the patient direct while others bulk bill Medicare and the patient has no out-of-pocket expense.

Exclusions

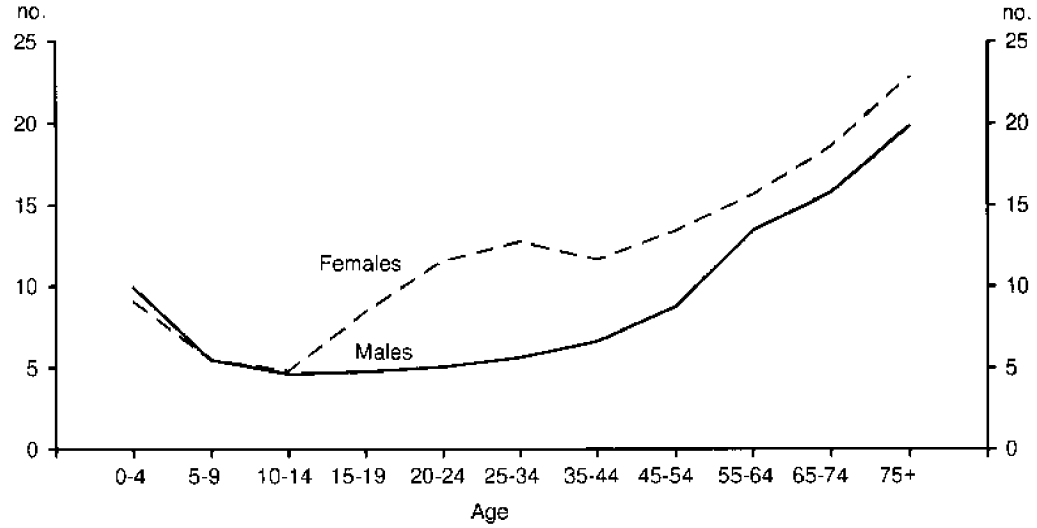
Medical treatment of public patients in public hospitals is not included in this review since these services are not billed to the Health Insurance Commission (HIC) but are paid by hospitals which are funded by states with the aid of federal government grants. This covers both in and out-patient care. Other exclusions from HIC Medicare data include services to eligible military service veterans and their dependants, services covered by motor vehicle third party insurance, workers' compensation schemes, public authorities and most government-funded community health services[2].

Rates of use per person have been calculated using the 31 December estimated resident population figures for the relevant financial year.

Service use and age

The average use of services under Medicare varies with age and sex. Up to the age of 14 boys and girls have similar patterns of use. In 1993–94, infants (0–4 years) used about 10 services per year while older children (10–14 years) had the lowest use for all ages at 5 services per year. From 15 years of age

Average number of Medicare services used per person, 1993–94



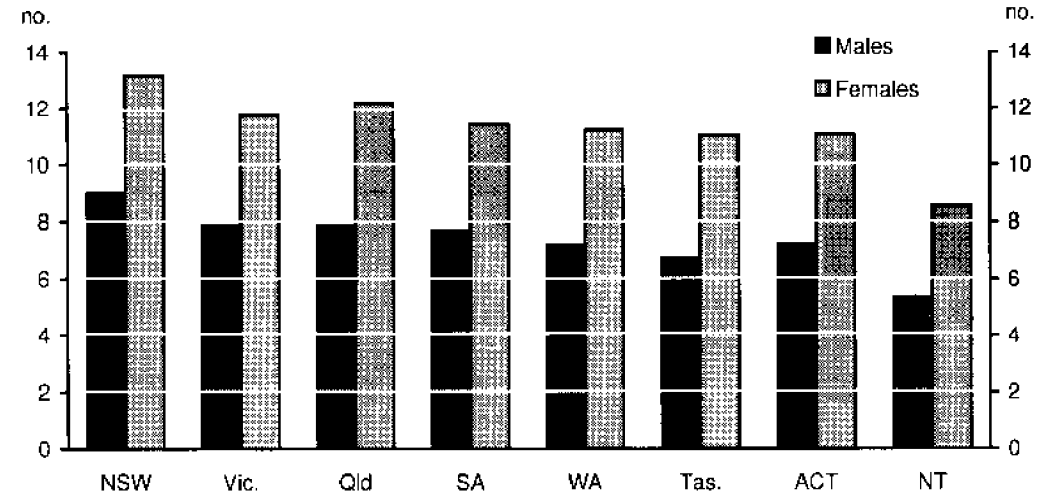
Source: Health Insurance Commission *Annual Report 1993–94*

onwards the average number of services per year gradually increased for men while that for women increased rapidly and remained higher than that for men at all ages. Between the ages of 25 and 34, the age range in which many women have children, the average use by women was 13 services per year while that for men was 6. The greatest use of Medicare services was made by people aged 75 or over. They averaged 20 services for men and 23 for women during 1993–94.

State differences

There are distinct differences in the average use of Medicare services per person between the states and territories. These differences remain even when the rates are standardised to remove the effect of different age structures. In 1993–94, New South Wales had the highest average standardised rates with 9 services per year for males and 13 for females. The Northern Territory had the lowest standardised rates with 5 services per year for males and 9 for females. These differences

Age standardised(a) average number of Medicare services used per person, 1993–94



(a) The average Medicare usage rate if the states/territories had the same population age and sex structure as Australia. Real age-specific usage rates are used for each state/territory.

Source: Health Insurance Commission *Annual Report 1993–94*

may reflect different state usage rates of hospital out-patient services, the mix of public and private hospital usage in the states, regional variation in clinical practises and varying access and availability of medical services between states. Studies have shown that as the number of general practitioners per person increases the number of services used per person increases[3].

Types of service used

The three most common types of service used in 1993–94 under the Medicare system were general practitioners (45%), pathology (24%) and specialists attendances (9%).

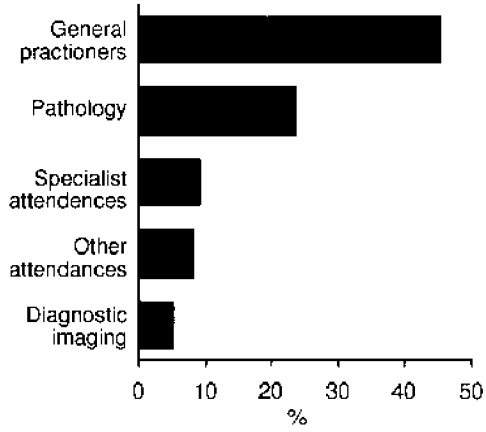
Between 1984–85 and 1993–94 the use per person per year of most types of service increased. Radiology and pathology services increased by the greatest proportions. Radiology services increased from 0.3 services per person to 0.5 (a 78% increase) and pathology services increased from 1.4 to 2.4 services per person (a 71% increase). Specialist services increased from 0.7 to 0.9 services per person (a 42% increase) and general practitioner services increased from 4.1 to 5.4 (a 33% increase).

Use of general practitioners

The number of general practitioner (GP) services used varied by age and between males and females. These variations were similar in both 1984–85 and 1993–94. In general, females had more services from GPs than males except among children. Among children aged 5–14 the average number of services per year for boys and girls were similar, while among children aged 0–4 boys had an average of 0.5 services more than girls (7.6 services for boys and 7.1 services for girls in 1993–94). A similar difference was observed in 1984–85.

Although the patterns of use were similar in 1984–85 and 1993–94, the average number of times a person used a GP service in the year increased. The increase was greatest among boys and girls aged 0–4 who had on average two more services a year in 1993–94 than in 1984–85.

The five most common services used under Medicare, 1993–94



Source: Health Insurance Commission *Annual Report 1993–94*

Average use of selected Medicare services(a) per person

	No. of services per person		% increase	
Broad type of service	1984–85	1993–94	Total	Annual average
	rate	rate	%	%
Consultations	*4.8*	*6.4*	*34.4*	*3.0*
General practitioner	4.1	5.4	33.2	2.9
Specialist	0.7	0.9	41.7	3.5
Pathology	1.4	2.4	70.9	5.5
Radiology	0.3	0.5	78.2	5.9
Operations	0.2	0.3	36.1	3.1
Other services(b)	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.1
All services	**7.2**	**10.2**	**40.9**	**3.5**

(a) Some amendments to the items included in the broad type of service have been made through the period of this comparison.
(b) Comprises obstetrics, anaesthetics, assistance at operations, optometry, dental and miscellaneous services.

Source: Health Insurance Commission *Annual Reports; Australian Demographic Statistics* (3101.0)

Average number of general practitioner services used per person

	1984–85		1993–94	
Age	Males	Females	Males	Females
	rate	rate	rate	rate
0–4	5.3	4.9	7.6	7.1
5–9	2.9	3.0	4.0	4.0
10–14	2.2	2.3	3.1	3.2
15–19	2.1	3.6	3.0	4.9
20–24	2.3	4.8	3.2	6.1
25–34	2.5	4.6	3.4	6.0
35–44	2.7	4.3	3.7	5.6
45–54	3.4	5.0	4.3	6.3
55–64	4.2	6.0	6.0	7.5
65–74	5.6	8.2	6.8	9.0
75+	8.8	11.4	9.5	12.4
Total	**3.3**	**5.0**	**4.5**	**6.4**

Source: Health Insurance Commission *unpublished data; Australian Demographic Statistics* (3101.0)

People not using services

Although the average number of Medicare services per person is a simple and convenient measure of service use, it understates the actual use per person because people who did not use a Medicare service are included.

The proportion of people who did not make a claim for a Medicare service varied with age and sex. Among males aged 25–34, 30% did not make a Medicare claim during 1993–94. Among females under 55 years the highest rate of not using any Medicare services occurred among girls aged 10–14, 20% of whom made no claims in 1993–94.

The data for men and women aged 55 and over indicate that high proportions used no Medicare services. This must be interpreted carefully. As previously discussed, older people who use health services under the Medicare scheme have the highest average use of Medicare per person. However, older people are also the most likely to be using public hospital in-patient care without charge and therefore not using the Medicare system. The medical services of the Department of Veterans Affairs programs also provide medical service outside of the Medicare system.

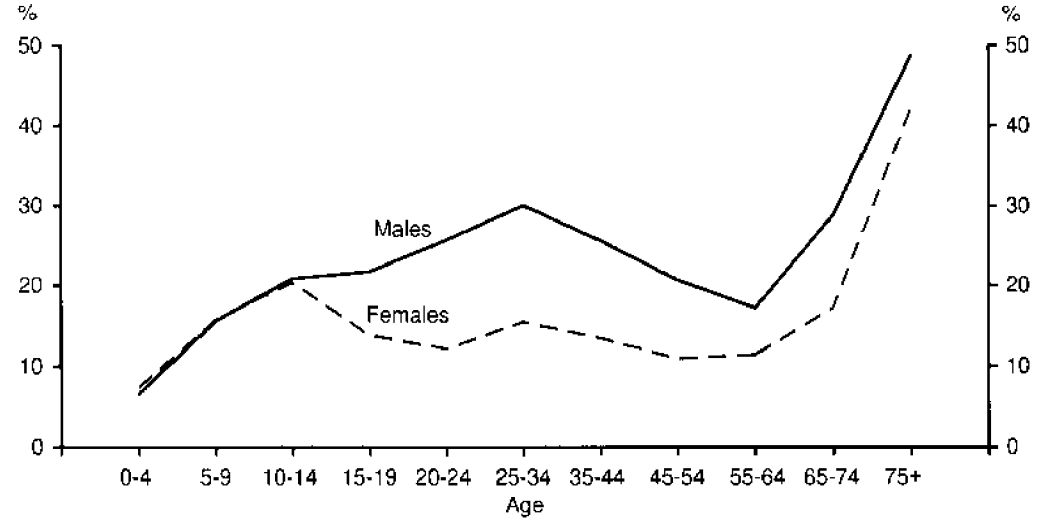
Endnotes

1 Health Insurance Commission *Annual Report 1993–94*.

2 Australian Institute of Health and Welfare (1994) *Australia's Health 1994, the 4th biennial report of the Australian Institute of Health and Welfare*.

3 Australian Institute of Health and Welfare (1992) *Australia's Health 1992, the 3rd biennial report of the Australian Institute of Health and Welfare*.

People who did not use a Medicare service, 1993–94



Source: Health Insurance Commission *Annual Report 1993–94*

Education

Education — national summary

PARTICIPATION	Units	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
School students	'000	3 006	3 001	3 005	3 022	3 031	3 042	3 075	3 099	3 098	3 099	3 109
TAFE students(a)	'000	859	887	937	952	932	967	986	1 043	1 121	1 118	nya
Higher education students	'000	370	390	394	421	441	485	535	559	576	585	604
Year 12 apparent retention rate	%	46.4	48.7	53.1	57.6	60.3	64.0	71.3	77.1	76.6	74.6	72.2
Aged 15–24 (of all aged 15–24)												
Participating in any education	%	39.5	40.1	41.9	43.5	44.9	45.5	47.6	49.1	48.2	48.4	47.9
Participating in TAFE	%	8.9	8.4	8.7	9.6	9.7	9.2	9.6	9.9	9.5	8.6	8.9
Participating in higher education	%	8.0	8.0	8.8	9.2	10.8	12.0	12.7	13.7	13.1	14.9	14.2
Women aged 15–24 participating in tertiary education (of all tertiary students aged 15–24)	%	na	42.4	45.1	45.7	43.9	46.4	46.6	47.2	48.2	48.9	46.7

ATTAINMENT	Units	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
Aged 15–64 with post-school qualifications (of all aged 15–64)	%	na	na	na	na	39.2	39.7	40.8	41.7	(b)39.1	(b)38.8	(b)40.6
Degree or higher	%	na	na	na	na	7.9	8.4	9.0	9.6	10.1	11.5	11.9
Skilled vocational qualification	%	na	na	na	na	12.7	12.6	12.6	12.7	13.6	11.5	12.6
Undergraduate or associate diploma	%	na	na	na	na	18.3	18.3	18.7	19.0	(b)9.0	(b)8.4	(b)8.8
Basic vocational qualification	%	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	(b)6.4	(b)7.4	(b)7.3
Aged 15–64 and did not complete highest level of secondary school (of all aged 15–64)	%	na	na	na	na	39.7	37.4	36.0	34.3	(b)37.3	(b)37.8	(b)36.3
Women aged 15–64 with post-school qualifications (of all aged 15–64 with post-school qualifications)	%	na	na	na	na	41.8	42.4	43.0	43.6	42.6	44.0	44.4

EDUCATION AND WORK	Units	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
Unemployment rate (aged 15–64)												
With degree or higher	%	na	na	na	na	2.4	3.2	3.9	4.3	4.3	4.7	3.6
With skilled vocational qualification	%	na	na	na	na	3.3	4.2	7.1	9.6	8.8	6.3	6.0
With undergraduate or associate diploma(b)	%	na	na	na	na	5.0	4.6	7.4	8.1	9.3	8.1	5.4
With basic vocational qualification(b)	%	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	9.3	8.3	7.8
Without post-school qualifications(b)	%	na	na	na	na	8.6	8.2	12.0	13.4	13.7	12.6	10.7
Apprentices	'000	128.6	130.4	138.9	147.1	151.7	161.0	151.0	142.9	r122.7	r123.3	na

SERVICES	Units	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
School student/teacher ratio	no.	15.3	15.3	15.1	15.1	15.3	15.3	15.4	15.3	15.3	15.5	15.4
Government schools	no.	7 561	7 589	7 575	7 535	7 513	7 490	7 470	7 448	7 366	7 159	7 122
Non-government schools	no.	2 502	2 496	2 504	2 519	2 523	2 517	2 510	2 509	2 499	2 520	2 526

EXPENDITURE	Units	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
Govt expenditure on education (of GDP)	%	5.4	5.4	5.2	4.9	r4.6	r4.6	5.0	r5.3	5.3	5.2	5.0
Total expenditure on education (of GDP)	%	5.8	5.8	5.7	5.4	r5.1	r5.1	r5.6	r5.9	r6.0	5.8	5.6

(a) Data prior to 1994 are not strictly comparable to more recent data due to changes in scope and collection methodology.
(b) Prior to 1993 the undergraduate or associate diploma category included basic vocational qualifications and other certificates/diplomas, some of which are no longer classified as post-school qualifications.

Reference periods: Schools data are at July. TAFE data comprise enrolments in the calendar year to 31 December. Higher education data are at 31 March from 1989; prior to that the reference date was 30 April. Apprentice data are at 30 June. Expenditure data are for financial years.

Education — state summary

PARTICIPATION	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
School students	'000	1995	1 055.9	770.3	556.1	244.8	301.7	84.7	34.8	61.1	3 109.3
TAFE students	'000	1994	392.4	331.9	192.7	90.4	65.2	19.1	9.4	17.2	1 117.9
Higher education students(a)	'000	1995	186.0	167.5	100.0	46.2	58.3	12.4	4.8	20.0	604.2
Year 12 apparent retention rate	%	1995	69.1	75.0	76.3	71.4	71.2	59.7	42.7	91.1	72.2
Aged 15-24 (of all aged 15–24)											
Participating in any education	%	1995	48.3	52.4	43.9	45.5	44.1	46.0	45.7	54.2	47.9
Participating in TAFE	%	1995	9.5	9.7	7.0	7.9	9.5	6.9	7.2	7.4	8.9
Participating in higher education	%	1995	12.6	16.1	14.4	14.5	13.2	12.1	14.0	18.9	14.2
Women aged 15–24 participating in tertiary education (of all tertiary students aged 15–24)	%	1995	47.2	45.0	46.8	49.8	46.8	41.3	50.0	53.1	46.7

ATTAINMENT	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Aged 15–64 with post-school qualifications (of all aged 15–64)	%	1995	44.3	38.8	36.8	37.4	41.8	36.4	42.2	48.9	40.6
Degree or higher	%	1995	12.8	12.8	9.4	8.3	11.7	10.2	10.8	22.6	11.9
Skilled vocational qualification	%	1995	13.1	11.5	13.0	12.3	13.7	12.9	14.4	7.8	12.6
Undergraduate or associate diploma	%	1995	9.2	8.8	8.0	8.9	8.8	7.4	10.6	10.5	8.8
Basic vocational qualification	%	1995	9.2	5.6	6.4	6.8	7.6	5.9	6.3	7.9	7.3
Aged 15–64 and did not complete highest level of secondary school (of all aged 15–64)	%	1995	33.6	37.4	39.4	39.5	35.6	40.6	35.0	20.4	36.3

EDUCATION AND WORK	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Unemployment rate (aged 15–64)											
With degree or higher	%	1995	3.9	3.1	3.8	*4.6	*3.5	*3.7	*0.0	3.2	3.6
With skilled vocational qualification	%	1995	5.7	7.0	6.1	8.1	4.2	*4.1	*1.2	*7.3	6.0
With undergraduate or associate diploma	%	1995	5.0	5.7	5.2	6.9	6.1	*5.8	*4.0	*3.0	5.4
With basic vocational qualifications	%	1995	6.9	7.6	12.5	*6.9	*6.6	*6.2	*2.7	*3.8	7.8
Without post-school qualifications	%	1995	10.1	11.2	11.2	11.3	9.2	13.1	11.1	10.1	10.7
Apprentices	'000	1994	42.7	30.3	23.4	9.3	11.3	3.1	1.1	2.1	123.3

SERVICES	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
School student/teacher ratio	no.	1995	15.4	15.1	15.8	15.1	15.5	15.3	13.7	15.5	15.4
Government schools	no.	1995	2 190	1 711	1 317	660	768	230	148	98	7 122
Non-government schools	no.	1995	865	675	408	193	250	70	26	39	2 526

(a) State totals exclude students of the Australian Catholic University which has campuses in more than one state.

Reference periods: Schools data are at July. TAFE data comprise enrolments in the calendar year to 31 December. Higher education data are at 31 March from 1989; prior to that the reference date was 30 April. Apprentice data are at 30 June.

Education — definitions and references

Apprentice — a person who has entered into a legal contract with an employer to serve a period of training for the purpose of attaining tradesperson's status in a recognised trade classification. Before signing indentures, the apprentice generally serves a probationary period, usually 3 months.
Reference: Vocational Employment, Education and Training Advisory Committee *Apprenticeship statistics*

Associate diploma — course lasting from one to two years full-time (or equivalent) for those wanting to work in advanced trades, technical, or associate professional occupations.
Reference: Transition from Education to Work, Australia (6227.0.40.001)

Basic vocational qualification — course lasting from one semester to one year full-time (or equivalent) providing practical skills and knowledge for those wanting to work at the operative level in various fields. Prior to 1993, basic vocational qualifications were included with undergraduate or associate diplomas.
Reference: Transition from Education to Work, Australia (6227.0.40.001)

Degree or higher — a bachelor degree (including honours), a graduate or post-graduate diploma, master's degree or a doctorate.
Reference: Transition from Education to Work, Australia (6227.0.40.001)

Did not complete highest level of secondary school — a person without post-school qualifications who did not complete the highest level of secondary schooling available at the time they left school.
Reference: Transition from Education to Work, Australia (6227.0.40.001)

Full-time equivalent (FTE) — a measure of the total level of staff resources used. The FTE of a full-time staff member is equal to 1.0. The calculation of FTE for part-time staff is based on the proportion of time worked compared to that worked by full-time staff performing similar duties.
Reference: Schools, Australia (4221.0)

GDP (gross domestic product) — the current price measure which is the sum of factor incomes, consumption of fixed capital (depreciation) and net indirect taxes.
Reference: Expenditure on Education, Australia (5510.0)

Government expenditure on education — government final expenditure, personal benefit payments, advances to persons for the Higher Education Contribution Scheme (HECS) and other government expenditure.
Reference: Expenditure on Education, Australia (5510.0)

Government school — one administered by the Department of Education in each state/territory.
Reference: Schools, Australia (4221.0)

Higher education student — a person for whom there is a full-time, part-time or external enrolment in a course at a higher education institution at the reference date.
Reference: Transition from Education to Work, Australia (6227.0.40.001); Department of Employment, Education and Training *Selected Higher Education Statistics*

Non-government school — one not administered by a Department of Education but including special schools administered by government authorities other than state/territory education departments.
Reference: Schools, Australia (4221.0)

Post-school qualification — any qualification gained by a person after leaving school such as a trade qualification, certificate, diploma, or degree.
Reference: Transition from Education to Work, Australia (6227.0.40.001)

School — an educational institution which provides primary or secondary education on a full-time daily basis, or by radio or correspondence.
Reference: Schools, Australia (4221.0)

School student — a person who is enrolled in a school and active in a course of study, other than pre-school or technical and further education (TAFE) courses.
Reference: Schools, Australia (4221.0)

School student/teacher ratio — number of school students divided by full-time equivalent teachers in both primary and secondary schools.
Reference: Schools, Australia (4221.0)

Skilled vocational qualification — course lasting two to four years, and typically involving some on-the-job training, for those wanting to work in a specific vocation, recognised trade or craft that requires a high degree of skill in a range of related activities. Prior to 1993, skilled vocational qualifications referred to trade qualifications only.
Reference: Transition from Education to Work, Australia (6227.0.40.001)

TAFE student — a person for whom there is a full-time or part-time vocational stream enrolment in a college of technical and further education (TAFE) for the reference year.
Reference: Department of Employment, Education and Training *Selected TAFE Statistics*

Tertiary education — education provided by any institution offering post-school courses. Includes TAFE and higher education systems.
Reference: Transition from Education to Work, Australia (6227.0.40.001)

Total expenditure on education — government expenditure on education plus private final expenditure on education.
Reference: Expenditure on Education, Australia (5510.0)

Undergraduate diploma — course lasting three years full-time (or equivalent) for those wanting to work as professionals or associate professionals.
Reference: Transition from Education to Work, Australia (6227.0.40.001)

Unemployment rate — the number of unemployed persons in any group expressed as a percentage of the labour force in the same group.
Reference: Transition from Education to Work, Australia (6227.0.40.001)

Year 12 apparent retention rate — the percentage of full-time students of a given cohort group who continue from the first year of secondary schooling to Year 12.
Reference: Schools, Australia (4221.0)

The education of Indigenous people

PARTICIPATION

In 1994, 18% of Indigenous people aged 15–64 who were not attending school had completed a post-school qualification compared to 41% of all Australians.

Indigenous people have lower levels of educational access, participation and attainment, and lower secondary school retention rates, than non-Indigenous people. The curricula of Indigenous students are sometimes inadequate or inappropriate[1]. These issues are addressed in the National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Education Policy which influences state and territory strategic plans for education providers.

Attainment

Indigenous people have lower educational attainment than the total population. In 1994, 18% of Indigenous people aged 15–64 who

Educational attainment of Indigenous people(a), 1994

Highest level of education attained	Men	Women	Persons
	%	%	%
Has a post-school qualification	*18.3*	*15.6*	*16.9*
Bachelor degree or higher	0.8	1.7	1.3
Diploma(b)	1.7	2.8	2.2
Skilled vocational qualification	7.3	0.9	4.1
Basic vocational qualification	3.2	5.8	4.5
Inadequately described	5.2	4.4	4.8
Does not have a post-school qualification	*81.7*	*84.4*	*83.1*
Year 12	6.0	7.2	6.6
Below year 12	70.9	71.8	71.4
Never attended school	4.7	5.4	5.0
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	'000	'000	'000
Total people(c)	**85.2**	**86.3**	**171.5**

(a) Refers to people aged 15 years and over who do not attend school.
(b) Refers to associate or undergraduate diploma.
(c) Includes educational attainment not stated.

Source: *National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Survey, 1994* (unpublished data)

National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Education Policy

The National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Education Policy came into effect from January 1, 1990. It attempts to recognise the diversity of Indigenous people's social, economic and political circumstances, cultural values and educational aspirations, and aims to improve their educational opportunities and outcomes. It has four main themes:

- to ensure Indigenous involvement in educational decision-making;
- to provide equality of access for Indigenous people to education services;
- to raise the rates of Indigenous participation in education to those of all Australians; and
- to achieve equitable and appropriate educational outcomes for Indigenous people[2].

In 1994, there was a National Review of Education for Indigenous people. In response to this review, the ABS is involved in appraising Indigenous education statistics over the next two years.

In this review, *capital city* comprises all state and territory capital city statistical divisions. *Other urban* comprises all centres with a total population of 1,000 and over, excluding capital cities. *Rural* comprises rural areas and towns with a total population of less than 1,000 people.

Proportion(a) of Indigenous people who have never been to school, 1994

Age	Men	Women	Persons
	%	%	%
15–24	0.6*	0.6*	0.6*
25–34	1.5*	1.0*	1.2
35–44	3.3	3.5	3.4
45–54	7.5	10.8	9.2
55–64	19.4	22.4	20.9
65 & over	42.2	30.0	34.8
Total	**4.4**	**5.0**	**4.7**
	'000	'000	'000
Total	**4.0**	**4.6**	**8.6**

(a) Percentage calculations exclude educational attainment not stated.

Source: *National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Survey, 1994* (unpublished data)

Distance from Indigenous households(a) to nearest educational institutions, 1994

Type of institution	0–10 km	11–25 km	26–50 km	51–100 km	Over 100 km	Total
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Pre-school	93.7	4.4	0.9	0.2*	0.9	100.0
Primary school	95.6	3.3	0.8	* *	0.2*	100.0
Secondary school - Year 10	83.6	5.4	4.3	3.3	3.3	100.0
Secondary school - Year 12	74.5	5.9	5.2	4.3	10.1	100.0
TAFE college	55.0	13.1	7.9	7.9	16.1	100.0
University	20.9	14.9	10.0	7.9	46.2	100.0

(a) This question was asked on the community form, not on the household form, and the answers were applied to all households in the community.

Source: *National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Survey, 1994: Detailed findings* (4190.0)

were not attending school had completed a post-school qualification compared to 41% of all Australians. When the data are standardised to account for the younger age structure of the Indigenous population, this imbalance remains.

In 1994, 5% of Indigenous people aged 15 and over reported that they had never attended school and 71% who were no longer attending school had left before completing Year 12. A further 17% had obtained a post-school qualification. Overall, Indigenous women reported a higher level of educational attainment than Indigenous men. 5% of Indigenous women had a diploma or higher qualification compared to 3% of Indigenous men.

Indigenous people are more likely than all Australians to have never attended school. In 1994, 3% of Indigenous people aged 15–64 had never attended school compared to 0.1% of all Australians. The proportion of Indigenous people who had not attended school increased with age. 35% aged 65 and over had never been to school compared to 1% aged 15–24. This indicates that the proportion of Indigenous people receiving some education has increased over time and is related to improved access to education. Overall, slightly more Indigenous women than men had never attended school.

Distance to educational institutions

There are many variables that affect access to education, eg cost, availability of transport and family attitudes. Distance to educational institutions is one way of measuring access to education. In 1994, the majority of Indigenous households were located within 10km of a pre-school, primary school, secondary school or TAFE college. 21% were within 10km of a university. Overall the distance increased as the level of education provided increased.

School students

In 1994, 65% of Indigenous people aged 13–18 reported that they were school students. This was lower than for the total population (73%). The proportion of Indigenous youth at school varied according to age and sex. 99% of 13 year olds were school students but this fell to 81% by age 15 and to 6% by age 18. A higher proportion of girls than boys were school students. Those living in capital cities or other urban areas were more likely to be school students than those living in rural areas.

In 1994, most Indigenous school students (88%) were enrolled in government schools. This was also true for non-Indigenous students, although they were more likely to be

Proportion of Indigenous youth who were school students, 1994

Age	Capital city	Other urban	Rural	Total
	%	%	%	%
13	100.0	98.0	98.5	98.7
14	100.0	98.0	95.0	97.7
15	76.0	87.3	77.4	81.4
16	57.5	60.7	48.9	56.6
17	29.5*	32.2	31.9*	31.3
18	8.5*	* *	8.5*	5.6*

Source: *National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Survey, 1994: Detailed findings* (4190.0)

Type of school attended by Indigenous students, 1994

Type of school	Capital city	Other urban	Rural	Total
	%	%	%	%
Government	91.3	90.5	81.2	88.1
Aboriginal Independent	0.6*	1.6	5.6	2.5
Catholic	5.9	7.0	12.7	8.3
Other non-government	2.1*	0.9*	* *	1.1
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total(a)	**22.2**	**36.5**	**24.0**	**82.7**

(a) Includes type of school not stated.

Source: *National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Survey, 1994* (unpublished data)

enrolled in non-government schools than Indigenous students. The type of school in which Indigenous students were enrolled also varied according to where they lived. For example, Indigenous students living in rural areas were more likely than those living in capital cities or other urban areas to be enrolled in Aboriginal Independent or Catholic schools. This pattern is related both to the availability of different types of school and to parental preferences. While only 7% of Indigenous parents reported that their children were enrolled in Aboriginal community controlled schools, a further 33% reported that they would prefer to send their children to such schools. This imbalance is probably due to their limited availability.

Indigenous content

There is evidence to suggest that Indigenous people's education is more effective when it includes some Indigenous content[1]. In 1994, the majority of Indigenous students received some Indigenous content in their schooling. 52% of Indigenous students were taught about Indigenous cultures at school, and 19% were taught Indigenous languages. Students at Aboriginal Independent schools were most likely to receive Indigenous content in their schooling.

Many Indigenous students are also taught by an Indigenous person. In 1994, 23% of Indigenous school students were taught by an Indigenous education worker, 14% were taught by an Indigenous teacher and 12% were taught by an Indigenous community member. As is to be expected, students at Aboriginal Independent schools were more likely than students at other types of schools to be taught by an Indigenous person.

Post-school study

In 1994, 6% of Indigenous people who had left school were studying for a qualification. 18% of them were studying for a bachelor degree. A further 16% were studying for a diploma and 14% for a Year 12 certificate. 27% of responses could not be categorised.

More women than men were undertaking post-school study. 21% of Indigenous women

Indigenous school students receiving Indigenous content(a), 1994

Indigenous content	Government	Catholic	Aboriginal independent	Other non-government	Total
	%	%	%	%	%
Taught about Indigenous cultures	51.2	55.6	88.5	33.8*	52.4
Taught Indigenous languages	17.8	18.0	74.9	* *	19.3
Taught by an Indigenous teacher	13.3	16.6	45.9	* *	14.4
Taught by an Indigenous education worker	23.5	11.5	43.5	* *	22.9
Taught by an Indigenous community member	12.9	6.9*	16.1*	* *	12.5
	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total Indigenous school students	**71.9**	**6.8**	**2.0**	**0.9**	**82.7**

(a) People may report more than one type of Indigenous content. Percentage calculations exclude Indigenous content not known and not stated.

Source: *National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Survey, 1994: Detailed findings* (4190.0)

Indigenous people(a) undertaking post-school study, 1994

Level of study	Men	Women	Persons
	%	%	%
Postgraduate	4.6*	2.8*	3.6*
Bachelor degree	13.6	21.5	17.8
Diploma	16.4	16.5	16.5
Skilled vocational qualification	13.0	3.6*	8.0
Basic vocational qualification	7.3*	11.9	9.8
Year 12 school certificate	15.2	12.1	13.6
Year 10 school certificate	* *	6.2*	3.5*
Inadequately described	29.5	25.4	27.3
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	'000	'000	'000
Total	**4.7**	**5.3**	**10.0**

(a) Refers to people aged 15 years and over who had left school.

Source: *National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Survey, 1994: Detailed findings* (4190.0)

Indigenous people(a) who wanted to do further education, 1994

Main difficulty expected	Men	Women	Persons
	%	%	%
Financial problems	13.9	12.1	13.0
Lack of transport/travel	15.1	12.4	12.9
No child care available	1.7	19.3	11.5
No courses available	10.7	6.2	8.4
Lack of pre-requisites	7.3	6.0	6.7
Lack of English proficiency	6.3	4.4	5.3
Lack of time	4.4	2.7	3.5
Family obligations	0.9*	3.0	2.0
Work commitment	2.8	1.0*	1.9
Other difficulty	6.6	4.9	5.7
No difficulty expected	30.3	29.6	29.9
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	'000	'000	'000
Total(b)	**38.2**	**40.3**	**78.5**

(a) Refers to people aged 15 years and over who had left school and were not currently studying.
(b) Includes difficulty not stated.

Source: *National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Survey, 1994* (unpublished data)

who were undertaking post-school study were studying for a bachelor degree and a further 17% were studying for a diploma. Among Indigenous men, 16% were studying for a diploma, and 15% for a Year 12 certificate.

Those aged 18–24 made up the largest proportion of Indigenous people undertaking post-school study (36%). However, this is the age at which many people (Indigenous and non-Indigenous) undertake further study, particularly for a bachelor degree or skilled vocational qualification. Indigenous people aged 35–44 were next most likely to be undertaking post-school study (28%). People living in capital cities were more likely than those in other urban or rural areas to be undertaking post-school study. This difference is related to lack of access and availability of educational institutions in other urban and rural areas.

Difficulties in participating in further education

In 1994, 46% of Indigenous people who had left school and were not currently studying indicated that they would like to do further study or training. 70% of these reported that they expected that they would have difficulty in doing so. The main difficulties expected were financial problems and lack of transport/travel, each reported by 13% of Indigenous people. These were followed by no child care available (12%), no courses available (8%), lack of pre-requisites (7%) and lack of English proficiency (5%). No child care available was the most common main difficulty expected by Indigenous women (19%) while lack of transport/travel was the most common main difficulty expected by Indigenous men (15%).

Endnotes

1 House of Representatives Select Committee on Aboriginal Education (1985) *Aboriginal Education*.

2 Department of Employment, Education and Training (1989) *National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Education Policy*.

From school to work

EDUCATION AND WORK

In 1995, there were 269,000 school leavers of whom three-quarters were in the labour force.

Leaving school is a major change in the lives of young people. The choices they make at this time affect their future working lives. Recent government policies such as *Working Nation*[1] have focused on employment and training opportunities for young people. However, the government has also sought to provide opportunities for young people to continue their education with tertiary studies.

Many young people go directly from school to the full-time labour force. However, they may also choose to combine work and further education or to go on to further education before entering the full-time labour force for the first time.

Completing secondary education

Increasingly school students have been completing the highest level of secondary education. The Year 12 apparent retention rate has increased from 46% in 1985 to 72% in 1995 (see *Education — national summary table* p. 72). The rate increased more for girls than for boys over this period. This increase in the proportion of students completing Year 12 is due partly to government initiatives to improve the relevance of schooling.

The higher level of secondary education completed by many school students has also caused changes in the paths chosen by those leaving school. Those who complete Year 12 are more likely than those who do not to go on to further education.

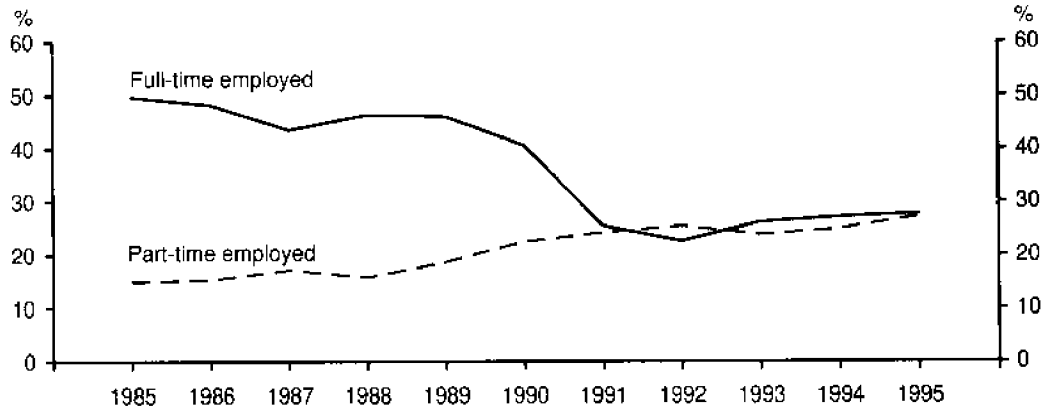
School leavers and retention rates

School leavers in this review refers to people aged 15–19 who were full-time school students at any time in the previous calendar year but were not full-time school students by May of the following year.

Year 12 apparent retention rates represent the percentage of full-time students of a given cohort group who continue from the first year of secondary schooling to Year 12.

The proportion of school leavers in the labour force decreased from 81% in 1985 to 75% in 1995. The patterns of employment and unemployment also changed considerably over the period. In 1985, 50% of school leavers went straight into full-time employment compared to 28% in 1995. In contrast, the proportions in part-time employment increased from 15% to 27%. In addition the proportion of people unemployed increased from 16% to 20%. Most of the change occurred between 1990 and 1991 when the youth unemployment rate and the Year 12 apparent retention rate both rose sharply (see *Work — national summary table* p. 94 and *Education — national summary table* p. 72). Increased participation in part-time work is also related to increased participation in full-time further education. The proportion of school leavers continuing their full-time education but not working or looking for work also increased over the period from 16% to 20%.

Employment of school leavers



Source: *Survey of Transition from Education to Work* (unpublished data)

Labour force status and further education of school leavers, 1995

Labour force status	Not in education	In full-time education	In part-time education	Total
	'000	'000	'000	'000
In the labour force	118.5	58.2	24.6	201.2
Employed	79.0	44.9	23.1	147.0
Full-time	54.4	* *	19.0	74.2
Part-time	24.5	44.1	4.1*	72.8
Unemployed	39.5	13.3	* *	54.2
Not in the labour force	14.5	53.3	* *	68.1
All school leavers	**133.0**	**111.5**	**24.9**	**269.4**

Source: *Survey of Transition from Education to Work* (unpublished data)

School leavers not undertaking further education

In 1995, almost half (133,000) of school leavers were not undertaking further education. Most of them (118,000 or 89%) were in the labour force. However, their unemployment rate was high (33%) compared to the rate for all people aged 15–19 (21% in May 1995). This high rate of unemployment among school leavers not undertaking further education reflects their shorter time in the labour force (see Australian Social Trends 1995 pp. 98–103 *Youth unemployment*). Just over two-thirds of employed school leavers who were not undertaking further education were employed full-time.

Combining work and further education

In 1995, there were 111,000 school leavers furthering their education on a full-time basis and 24,900 on a part-time basis. Many school leavers choose to combine work with further education. Almost all those studying part-time were also employed, and generally employed full-time. In contrast those studying full-time who were employed were generally employed part-time.

Of the 68,000 employed school leavers furthering their education, most (38,500) were attending TAFE and almost all of the remainder were in higher education. These two groups combined work and study in quite different ways. Employed TAFE students were more likely to be working full-time and studying part-time (48%) than working part-time and studying full-time (43%). In contrast the majority (96%) of employed higher education students studied full-time and worked part-time.

Most (68%) employed male school leavers who were furthering their education were studying at TAFE. In contrast most (56%) female employed school leavers who were furthering their education were studying in higher education. Most men studying at TAFE (63%) combined full-time work with part-time study. However, most women studying at TAFE (71%) combined part-time work with full-time study.

In 1995, there were 20,200 school leavers undertaking apprenticeships, a decrease of 13,900 since 1985. In 1995, 91% of apprentices were men compared to 84% in 1985.

Employed school leavers in further education, 1995

Work and study arrangements	Higher education	TAFE	Total(a)
	%	%	%
Employed full-time, studying part-time	* *	47.7	27.9
Employed part-time, studying full-time	95.9	43.4	64.9
Other	* *	8.9*	7.2*
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	'000	'000	'000
Total	**28.3**	**38.5**	**68.0**

(a) Includes business colleges, industry skills centres and other educational institutions.

Source: *Survey of Transition from Education to Work* (unpublished data)

School leavers by occupation, 1995

Occupation	Employed full-time	Employed part-time	Total
	%	%	%
Managers and administrators, professionals, and para-professionals	4.8*	3.5*	4.2*
Tradespersons	28.9	* *	15.0
Clerks	13.5	4.1*	8.8
Salespersons and personal service workers	25.7	61.0	43.2
Plant and machine operators and drivers	3.5*	* *	2.7*
Labourers and related workers	23.6	28.8	26.2
Total employed	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	'000	'000	'000
Total employed	**74.2**	**72.8**	**147.0**

Source: *Survey of Transition from Education to Work* (unpublished data)

Occupations of school leavers

In 1995, the most common occupations among employed school leavers were salespersons and personal service workers followed by labourers and related workers. However, the occupations of school leavers varied by employment status and between men and women.

In 1995, of those employed full-time the most common occupations were tradespersons followed by salespersons and personal service workers, and labourers and related workers. Of those employed part-time the most common occupations were salespersons and personal service workers followed by labourers and related workers. 68% of part-time employed salespersons and personal service workers were students.

For men employed full-time the most common occupations were tradespersons (42%) followed by labourers and related workers (31%). For women the most common occupations were salespersons and personal service workers (47%) followed by clerks (29%). The most common occupations of men and women also varied for the part-time employed. Men were more likely to be labourers and related workers (46%) followed by salespersons and personal service workers (43%) whereas women were most likely to be employed as salespersons and personal service workers (75%).

Endnote

1 Commonwealth Government (1994) *Working Nation: policies and programs* AGPS, Canberra.

Early school leavers

ATTAINMENT

In 1994 one-third of early school leavers had subsequently gained post-school qualifications.

A person's educational attainment affects their social well-being. Early school leavers, through receiving less education, often have higher unemployment levels, lower occupational status and lower incomes. Their opportunities for higher education are also often reduced.

Recent government policy has focused on the participation in education of young people as a means of meeting the demand for a better educated labour force. School has increasingly become the precursor to further education as opposed to direct entry into the labour force. In 1991 the Australian Education Council Review Committee stated '... by the year 2001, 95% of 19 year olds should have completed Year 12 or an initial post-school qualification or be participating in education or training.'[1]

In 1994, 56% of people aged 15–69 (6.9 million) were classified as early school leavers (ie had not completed Year 12 or the highest level of secondary school available). A further 39% had completed Year 12 or the highest level of secondary school available and the rest were still at school or had never been to school.

Age

The proportions of each age group who were early school leavers increased with age from 22% of people aged 15–19 to 75% of those aged 55–69. This pattern was reversed for people who had completed Year 12 or the highest level of secondary school. 57% of those aged 20–24 had completed the highest level of secondary school compared to 24% of those aged 55–69. The low proportion of people aged 15–19 who had completed the highest level of school was due to the 45% who were still at school. These patterns

Early school leavers and the labour force

Early school leavers in this review are people aged 15–69 who did not complete Year 12 (or the highest level of secondary school available at the time they left school). Those who never went to school and those who are still at school are not included.

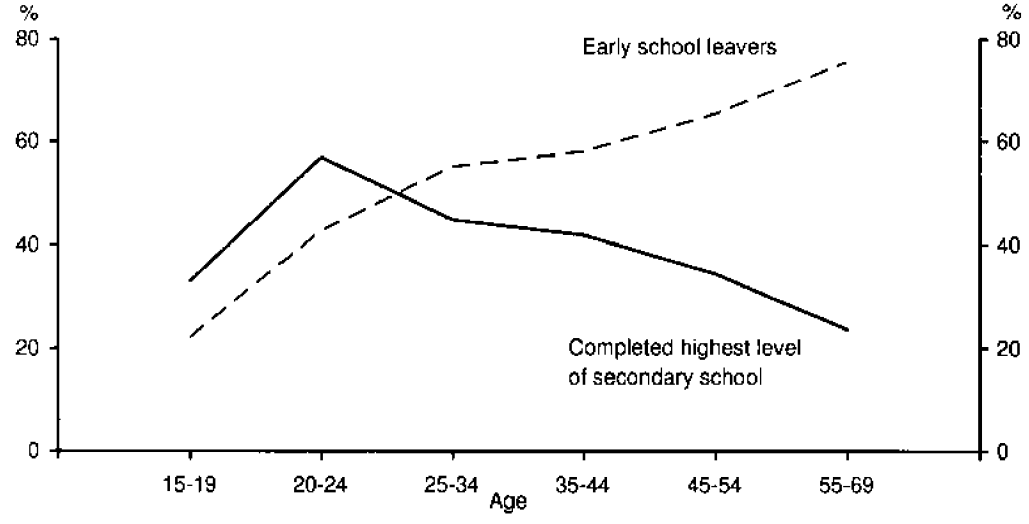
The *employed* are people who worked during the reference week for pay, profit, commission, payment in kind or without pay in a family business, or who had a job but were not at work.

The *unemployed* are people who were not employed during the reference week, but who had actively looked for work and were available to start work.

People who are *not in the labour force* are those who did not work and did not look for work in the reference week.

Long-term unemployed refers to people who were unemployed for 52 weeks or longer.

School experience, 1994



Source: *Survey of Labour Force Status and Educational Attainment* (unpublished data)

Age distribution, 1994

Age	Early school leavers	Completed highest level of secondary school	Total(a)
	%	%	%
15–24	12.8	25.5	21.7
25–34	22.0	25.8	22.4
35–44	22.2	23.2	21.6
45–54	19.8	15.0	17.0
55–69	23.2	10.5	17.3
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	'000	'000	'000
Total	**6 924.6**	**4 793.6**	**12 329.1**

(a) Includes people still at school and those who never went to school.

Source: *Survey of Labour Force Status and Educational Attainment* (unpublished data)

reflect increased educational opportunities over the last 20 or 30 years.

On average, early school leavers were older than people who had completed the highest level of secondary school. The proportion of early school leavers aged 15–24 in 1994 was half that of those who had completed the highest level of secondary school (13% compared to 25%) and the proportion aged 55–69 was twice the size (23% compared to 11%).

Post-school qualifications

The level of schooling achieved affects a person's chances of gaining post-school qualifications. Early school leavers were less likely to have gained post-school qualifications (33%) than those who had completed the highest level of secondary school (56%).

About the same proportion of men (57%) and women (56%) were early school leavers. However, more male early school leavers (40%) had subsequently gained post-school qualifications (eg a trade) than female early school leavers (25%). 38% of men and 39% of women had completed the highest level of secondary school. In this group only slightly more men (58%) than women (55%) had post-school qualifications.

Of the early school leavers who had a post-school qualification, 77% had a skilled vocational qualification (eg a trades qualification) or a basic vocational qualification (eg a shorthand course or pre apprenticeship certificate). In contrast, 29% of people who had completed the highest level of secondary school had gained a vocational qualification, and 45% had obtained a bachelor degree or higher. These differences are largely the result of educational and employment patterns of the past when people were less likely to have completed the highest level of secondary school before undertaking vocational further education.

Male early school leavers with post-school qualifications were most likely to have skilled vocational qualifications (73%) while female early school leavers with post-school qualifications were most likely to have basic vocational qualifications (46%).

Labour force status

Early school leavers were less likely to be employed and more likely to be unemployed

Educational attainment, 1994

Educational attainment	Men	Women	Persons
	'000	'000	'000
Early school leavers	*3 508.0*	*3 416.6*	*6 924.6*
With post-school qualifications	1 419.0	843.6	2 262.6
Without post-school qualifications	2 089.0	2 573.0	4 662.0
Completed highest level of secondary school	*2 372.2*	*2 421.4*	*4 793.6*
With post-school qualifications	1 382.7	1 325.1	2 707.8
Without post-school qualifications	989.5	1 096.3	2 085.8
Never went to school	12.5	23.8	36.3
Still at school	285.3	289.3	574.6
Total	**6 178.1**	**6 151.0**	**12 329.1**

Source: *Survey of Labour Force Status and Educational Attainment* (unpublished data)

Post-school qualifications, 1994

Educational attainment	Early school leavers	Completed highest level of secondary school
	%	%
Higher degree	0.5	5.6
Postgraduate diploma	0.9	6.7
Bachelor degree	4.5	33.0
Undergraduate diploma	4.1	10.7
Associate diploma	13.0	15.4
Skilled vocational qualification	55.1	17.8
Basic vocational qualification	21.9	10.8
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**
	'000	'000
Total persons	**2 262.6**	**2 707.8**

Source: *Survey of Labour Force Status and Educational Attainment* (unpublished data)

or not in the labour force than those who had completed the highest level of secondary school. In 1994, 59% of early school leavers were employed, compared to 72% of those who had completed the highest level of secondary school. 8% of early school leavers were unemployed and 33% were not in the labour force.

It is likely that the overall lower educational attainment of early school leavers affects their labour force status. In addition, the higher proportion of early school leavers who were not in the labour force as compared to those who had completed the highest level of secondary school is affected by the older age profile of the early school leaver population.

Labour force status, 1994

Labour force status	Early school leavers	Completed highest level of secondary school
	%	%
Employed	58.8	71.9
Unemployed	8.3	7.8
Not in the labour force	32.8	20.4
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**

Source: *Survey of Labour Force Status and Educational Attainment* (unpublished data)

In 1994, most people aged 55–69 (66%) were not in the labour force.

There were substantial differences in labour force participation between women who had left school early and women who had completed the highest level of secondary school. Female early school leavers were less likely to be employed (47%) and more likely to not be in the labour force (47%) than women who had completed the highest level of secondary school (65% and 28% respectively). For men, the differences in labour force participation were not quite as marked.

Occupation

The level of education also influences occupation. Early school leavers are concentrated in blue collar occupations. In 1994, 20% of early school leavers were employed as tradespersons and 18% were employed as labourers and related workers. In contrast, those who had completed the highest level of secondary school were concentrated in white collar occupations. 33% of those who had completed the highest level of secondary school were employed as professionals or para-professionals.

Occupations, 1994

Occupation	Early school leavers	Completed highest level of secondary school
	%	%
Managers and administrators	11.7	10.8
Professionals	4.2	24.8
Para-professionals	4.6	7.8
Tradespersons	20.1	8.9
Clerks	16.8	17.5
Salespersons and personal service workers	13.7	16.2
Plant and machine operators, and drivers	10.5	3.9
Labourers and related workers	18.3	10.1
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**
	'000	'000
Total employed	**4 073.5**	**3 444.2**

Source: *Survey of Labour Force Status and Educational Attainment* (unpublished data)

Early school leavers are more likely to have attained skilled or basic vocational qualifications than those who completed the highest level of secondary school. This accounts for the relatively high proportion of early school leavers employed as tradespersons, and plant and machine operators, and drivers.

Unemployment

In 1994, the unemployment rate of early school leavers was 12% compared to 10% of those who had completed the highest level of secondary school. Early school leavers were also more likely to be long-term unemployed (unemployed for 52 weeks or more) than those who had completed the highest level of secondary school. In 1994, the long–term unemployment rate of early school leavers was 5% compared to 3% of those who had completed the highest level of secondary school.

Unemployed early school leavers were likely to be unemployed for longer than unemployed people who had completed the highest level of secondary school. 24% of unemployed early school leavers had been unemployed for 2 years or more compared to 16% of those who had completed the highest level of secondary school.

Duration of unemployment, 1994

Duration of unemployment	Early school leavers	Completed highest level of secondary school
	%	%
1 and under 4 weeks	11.0	15.7
4 and under 8 weeks	10.7	14.3
8 and under 13 weeks	7.9	15.4
13 and under 26 weeks	12.6	13.0
26 and under 52 weeks	15.6	11.5
52 and under 104 weeks	18.1	14.0
104 weeks and over	24.1	16.3
Total unemployed	**100.0**	**100.0**
	'000	'000
Total unemployed	**577.0**	**372.0**

Source: *Survey of Labour Force Status and Educational Attainment* (unpublished data)

Endnote

1 Australian Education Council Review Committee (1991) *Young People's Participation in Post-compulsory Education and Training*, AGPS, Canberra.

Migrants and education

ATTAINMENT

49% of recent migrants arrived with post-school qualifications. 60% of them have had their qualifications recognised in Australia.

The skills and educational qualifications that migrants bring with them to Australia represent a considerable contribution to the country's culture and economy[1]. Current immigration policy explicitly seeks migrants (other than those who are selected on refugee or humanitarian grounds) who are best able to contribute to the economic development of the Australian community[2]. This represents a change in immigration policy since the immediate post-war period. Immigration at that time was driven by concerns related to defence and the Cold War, and the supply of labour for Australia's expanding manufacturing sector[3].

Recognising the value of overseas qualifications relevant to the Australian labour market is a matter of social justice for individual migrants. It is also an important aspect of micro-economic reform in making greatest use of available skills[1].

Educational attainment on arrival

The educational attainment of migrants on arrival often reflects their social background and demographic characteristics. Australia's migrant intake has varied over time by country of origin, age composition and the balance of males and females (see *Expanding links with Asia* pp. 10–16; Australian Social Trends 1994 pp. 9–12 *Birthplaces of Australia's settlers*).

Compared to the Australian born population, recent migrants are relatively well educated. 49% of recent migrants arrived with post-school qualifications. In comparison, 41% of Australian born people aged 18–64 had post-school qualifications in 1993[4]. However, the relatively high level of educational attainment of recent migrants on arrival is due partly to the young age structure of the migrant population. Younger people generally have higher levels of educational attainment than older people. Of Australian born people aged 18 or more in June 1993, 40% were aged 18–34[5] compared to 68% of recent migrants on arrival.

A greater proportion of recent migrants born in the main English speaking countries arrived with post-school qualifications (56%) than of those born in other countries (45%). This may be related to the higher proportion

Migrants

Recent migrants in this review are those who arrived in Australia between 1971 and September 1993, aged 18 and over.

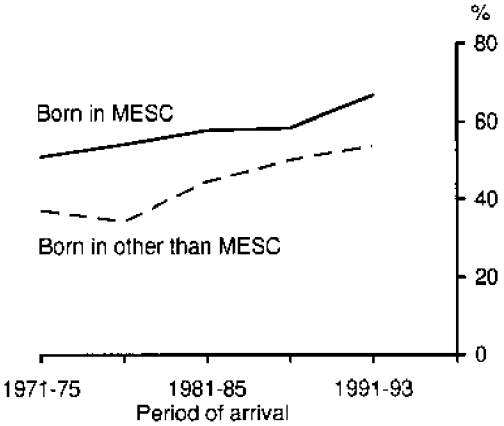
Main English speaking countries (MESC) comprise the United Kingdom, Ireland, Canada, South Africa, USA New Zealand and Australia.

of migrants from other countries who were sponsored by family or arrived as refugees, and did not necessarily require qualifications to migrate to Australia. Among recent migrants from the main English speaking countries, 17% were sponsored by family compared to 38% of migrants from other countries. An additional 8% of migrants from other countries entered as refugees.

Despite a decline over the past two decades in the proportion of the migrant intake who were born in the main English speaking countries, the proportion of recent migrants arriving with post-school qualifications has increased. 43% of migrants arriving in the 1970s had post-school qualifications, compared to 58% of those arriving in the early 1990s.

Of recent migrants who arrived with post-school qualifications, a smaller proportion of those born in the main English

Migrants who had arrived with post-school qualifications, 1993



Source: *Survey of Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Migrants, Australia 1993* (unpublished data)

Educational attainment of recent migrants on arrival, 1993

Educational attainment on arrival	Born in MESC	Born in other countries	Total
	%	%	%
Bachelor degree or higher	23.5	37.1	31.1
Undergraduate diploma	8.0	6.9	7.4
Associate diploma	15.0	19.3	17.4
Skilled and basic vocational qualifications	53.5	36.7	44.1
Total with post-school qualifications	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	'000	'000	'000
With post-school qualifications	273.5	350.3	623.8
Without post-school qualifications	210.8	433.5	644.3
Total	**484.3**	**783.8**	**1 268.1**

Source: *Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Migrants, Australia 1993* (6250.0 and unpublished data)

speaking countries arrived with a degree (23% compared to 37%), and a greater proportion arrived with vocational qualifications (54% compared to 37%) than those born in other countries.

A greater proportion of male (60%) than female (40%) recent migrants arrived with post-school qualifications. This may be related to the higher proportion of female migrants who were sponsored by family (34%) than male migrants (26%). Of recent migrants born in the main English speaking countries, 68% of men and 45% of women arrived with post-school qualifications. Of migrants born in other countries, 55% of men and 37% of women arrived with post-school qualifications. In comparison, 47% of Australian born men aged 18–64, and 36% of women had post-school qualifications in 1993[4].

Recognition of qualifications

Recognition of qualifications affects migrants' chances of success in the labour market. It is also important to ensure that available skills are being fully utilised[1].

Formal recognition of qualifications ensures that overseas qualifications are assessed in the context of Australian standards. Recognition of migrants' qualifications is affected by a range of factors including the field of qualification and country in which it was obtained. Migrants' desire to have their qualifications recognised is also a factor. Some qualifications are more readily recognised than others, and the mix of qualifications that migrants arrive with will affect their chances of recognition.

Often migrants have their qualifications recognised by several different types of organisation. Many migrants have their qualifications assessed by the Department of Immigration and Ethnic Affairs when applying to migrate to Australia. The National Office of Overseas Skills Recognition (NOOSR) assists the department in making these assessments.

The assessment process also varies depending on the field of qualification and legislation

Assessment of overseas qualifications

The National Office of Overseas Skills Recognition (NOOSR) was established in the Department of Employment, Education and Training in 1989. NOOSR continued the functions of the former Council on Overseas Professional Qualifications. NOOSR plays a central role in overseeing the recognition of professional, para-professional and technical qualifications gained overseas. A network of expert panels and councils assists NOOSR in making assessments. NOOSR provides educational, occupational and examination assessments, and funds bridging courses. NOOSR also assists the Department of Immigration and Ethnic Affairs in assessing the qualifications of prospective migrants overseas[6].

Assessments of trade qualifications are made by Trades Recognition Australia (TRA), in the Department of Industrial Relations. TRA provides a skills recognition service to people living permanently in Australia. It also provides a trades skills assessment service across a range of occupational groupings for people seeking to migrate to Australia[7].

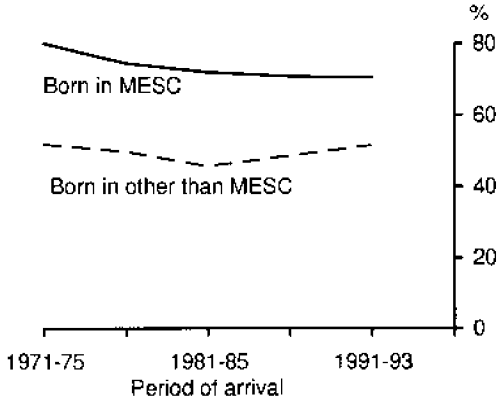
governing professional licensing or registration. These may differ from state to state. Formal recognition of qualifications does not guarantee recognition by employers. However, employers may accept some qualifications without formal recognition, especially if certain skills or qualifications are in short supply.

In 1993, 60% of recent migrants who had arrived with post-school qualifications had their qualifications recognised in Australia. Of migrants whose qualifications were recognised, 41% were recognised primarily by an employer, 29% by a licensing or registration board, and 20% by a union or professional association.

65% of recent migrants who arrived with post-school qualifications in the 1970s had their qualifications recognised compared to 58% of those who arrived in the early 1990s.

Migrants who arrived with post-school qualifications and who were born in the main English speaking countries were more likely

Migrants whose qualifications had been recognised(a), 1993



(a) Migrants who arrived with post-school qualifications which were recognised in Australia primarily by employers, licensing/registration boards, unions or professional organisations, or other organisations. A small number of migrants had obtained qualifications in Australia before migration.

Source: *Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Migrants, Australia 1993* (unpublished data)

Migrants whose post-school qualifications had been recognised(a), 1993

Field of qualification	Born in MESC	Born in other countries	Total
	%	%	%
Teaching, education	80.9	32.5	51.6
Business, administration	63.7	41.7	49.9
Arts, humanities, social sciences	68.4	39.8	53.3
Economics, law	76.9*	46.8	54.2
Mechanical, electrical, automotive and manufacturing trades	74.9	53.3	63.2
Building	78.0	58.0	71.0
Hairdressing, beauty	50.6	28.1*	41.1
Food and hospitality	67.2	48.9	55.3
Health, medicine	82.8	49.3	65.7
Science	84.5	72.8	77.3
Agriculture, horticulture	62.6*	35.6*	48.5
Engineering	73.3	60.7	65.8
Architecture	100.0*	65.4*	79.3
Transport and machinery operations	62.1*	60.8*	61.6
Total	**73.5**	**48.8**	**59.6**
	'000	'000	'000
Total	**200.9**	**170.9**	**371.8**

(a) Migrants who arrived with post-school qualifications which were recognised in Australia primarily by employers, licensing/registration boards, unions or professional organisations, or other organisations. A small number of migrants had obtained qualifications in Australia before migration.

Source: *Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Migrants, Australia 1993* (6250.0 and unpublished data)

than those born in other countries to have their qualifications recognised (73% compared to 49%). This was particularly so in the fields of teaching and education (81% compared to 32%) and health and medicine (83% compared to 49%).

Of recent migrants who arrived with post-school qualifications, men were more likely than women to have their qualifications recognised (76% compared to 70% for those born in the main English speaking countries; and 57% compared to 40% for those born in other countries).

Formal recognition of overseas qualifications does not guarantee success in the labour market. Other barriers to employment may exist, such as lack of local work experience and lack of English language skills.

English language proficiency

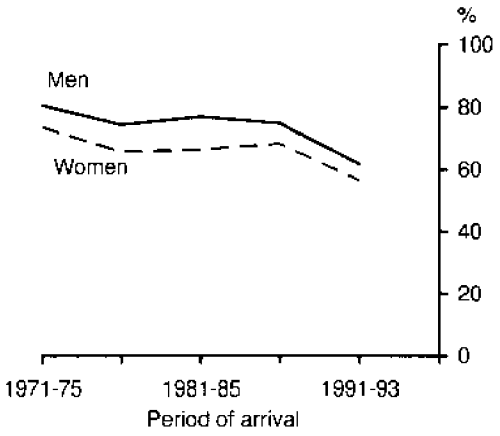
English language proficiency affects participation in the labour force, education and access to government services. The Department of Immigration and Ethnic Affairs provides English as a second language (ESL) training to newly arrived adult migrants through the Adult Migrant English Program (AMEP)[2]. The Department of Employment, Education, Training and Youth Affairs provides ESL training to migrant workers through the Workplace English Language and Literacy (WELL) program, and to jobseekers through the Advanced English for Migrants Program (AEMP)[8].

In 1993, 70% of recent migrants born in other than the main English speaking countries spoke English fluently. 24% could not speak English well and 6% did not speak English at all.

Proficiency in English increases the longer migrants have been in Australia. Among recent migrants born in other than the main English speaking countries, 73% of those who arrived in the 1970s spoke English fluently in 1993, compared to 59% of those who arrived in the early 1990s. Changes in the country of origin of migrants born in other than the main English speaking countries since 1970 may also have affected the proportion speaking English fluently.

A greater proportion of male than female recent migrants were fluent English speakers in 1993 (75% compared to 67%).

Migrants born in other than MESC who spoke English fluently(a), 1993



(a) Includes people who spoke a language other than English at home but who spoke English well or very well, and those who spoke only English at home.

Source: *Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Migrants, Australia 1993* (unpublished data)

Post-migration education

Overall, 19% of recent migrants had gained post-school qualifications since arrival in Australia. Migrants who arrived with post-school qualifications were more likely than those who arrived without them to have gained further post-school qualifications since arrival (26% compared to 13%).

Men were more likely to have arrived with post-school qualifications than women, and they were also more likely to have gained post-school qualifications since arrival (22% compared to 17%).

Recent migrants born in the main English speaking countries were more likely to have arrived with post-school qualifications than those born in other countries. They were also more likely to have gained post-school qualifications since arrival. Of recent migrants born in the main English speaking countries, 23% of men and 21% of women had gained post-school qualifications since arrival, compared to 21% of men and 15% of women born in other countries.

Among recent migrants born in other than the main English speaking countries, those who spoke English fluently in 1993 were more likely to have gained post-school qualifications since arrival (23%) than those who did not (4%).

Recent migrants having gained post-school qualifications since arrival, 1993

Educational attainment since arrival	Born in MESC	Born in other countries	Total
	%	%	%
Had gained post-school qualifications	22.3	17.6	19.4
Had not gained post-school qualifications	77.7	82.4	80.6
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	'000	'000	'000
Total	**484.3**	**783.8**	**1 268.1**

Source: *Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Migrants, Australia 1993* (unpublished data)

Education and labour force status

In 1993, the labour force participation rate of recent migrants who had arrived with post-school qualifications was higher than that of those who had arrived without them (81% compared to 59%).

Recent migrants, regardless of birthplace, who arrived without post-school qualifications had a higher unemployment rate in 1993 than those who arrived with post-school qualifications (16% compared to 11%).

Recent migrants who were born in the main English speaking countries experienced higher labour force participation rates and lower unemployment rates in 1993 than migrants born in other countries. The lower labour force participation rate for migrants born in other countries may be related to the higher proportion of this group who are female. Overall, women have a lower labour force participation rate than men (see *Work — national summary table* p. 94).

Among recent migrants born in other than the main English speaking countries, rates of unemployment and labour force participation are related to fluency in English. Those who spoke English fluently experienced a lower rate of unemployment in 1993 (15%) than those who did not speak English well (31%), or at all (55%). The labour force participation rate in 1993 was higher for recent migrants who spoke English fluently (74%) than for those who did not speak English well (51%), or at all (19%).

The longer migrants had been resident in Australia, generally the less likely they were to have been unemployed in 1993. Of recent migrants born in the main English speaking countries, 6% of those who arrived in the 1970s were unemployed, compared to 9% of those who arrived in the early 1990s. Of migrants born in other countries, 13% of those who arrived in the 1970s were unemployed, compared to 46% of those who arrived in the early 1990s.

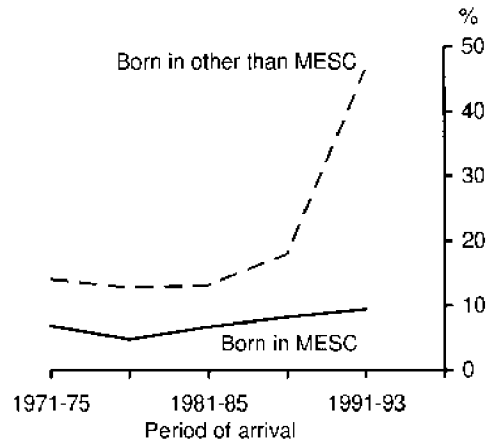
In 1993, when unemployed people aged 18–64 were asked about their main difficulty in finding work, 18% of Australian born people, 14% of people born in the main English speaking countries, and 13% of people born in other countries stated that their main difficulty was a lack of necessary schooling, training, skills or experience. An additional 27% of people born in other than the main English speaking countries stated

Educational attainment of recent migrants on arrival and labour force status, 1993

	Labour force participation rate			Unemployment rate		
Educational attainment on arrival	Born in MESC	Born in other countries	Total	Born in MESC	Born in other countries	Total
	%	%	%	%	%	%
With post-school qualifications	86.5	77.6	81.5	6.2	16.0	11.4
Without post-school qualifications	64.1	55.9	58.6	8.8	20.7	16.5
Total	**76.7**	**65.6**	**69.8**	**7.1**	**18.3**	**13.6**

Source: *Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Migrants, Australia 1993* (unpublished data)

Unemployment rate among recent migrants, 1993



Source: *Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Migrants, Australia* (unpublished data)

that their main difficulty in finding work related to problems with language or ethnic background[9].

Endnotes

1 Advisory Council on Multicultural Affairs (1988) *Towards a national agenda for a multicultural Australia: a discussion paper.*

2 Department of Immigration and Ethnic Affairs *Annual Report 1994–95.*

3 Birrell, R. and Birrell, T. (1987) *An Issue of People: Population and Australian Society* Longman Cheshire, Melbourne.

4 *Transition from Education to Work, May 1993* (unpublished data).

5 *Estimated Resident Population, June 1995* (unpublished data).

6 Department of Employment, Education and Training (1994) *Issues and Options Paper on the Overseas Skills Recognition Process and Related Labour Market Issues* Unpublished Government Paper.

7 Department of Industrial Relations *Annual Report 1994–95.*

8 Department of Employment, Education and Training *Annual Report 1994–95.*

9 *Training and Education Experience, Australia 1993* (unpublished data).

Work

Work — national summary

LABOUR FORCE	Units	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
Total labour force	'000	7 199	7 451	7 679	7 867	8 083	8 346	8 491	8 518	8 574	8 696	8 888
Participation rate	%	60.5	61.4	62.0	62.2	62.6	63.5	63.6	63.0	62.6	62.8	63.3
Male participation rate	%	75.9	75.9	75.6	75.3	75.2	75.5	r75.3	74.4	73.9	73.6	73.8
Female participation rate	%	45.7	47.4	48.7	49.4	50.4	51.9	52.3	51.9	51.7	52.2	53.2
Women (of labour force)	%	38.3	39.1	39.8	40.3	40.8	41.4	41.7	41.9	41.9	42.3	42.7

PAID WORK	Units	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
Total employed	'000	6 579	6 860	7 044	7 256	7 549	7 832	7 782	7 637	7 634	7 781	8 093
Part-time employed (of total employed)	%	17.7	18.3	19.2	19.8	20.1	20.9	21.7	22.9	23.5	23.8	24.4
Employment/population ratio	%	55.3	56.6	56.9	57.4	58.5	59.6	58.3	56.5	55.8	56.2	57.7
Employed in service industries (of employed)	%	66.5	66.9	67.6	67.8	68.2	69.1	70.6	70.9	70.7	71.1	71.4
Employed in manufacturing industries (of employed)	%	16.7	16.1	15.9	15.8	15.6	14.8	14.2	14.1	13.9	14.0	13.8
Part-time employed who prefer more hours (of part-time employed)	%	17.7	16.9	18.4	r18.7	17.6	18.0	21.7	26.4	29.2	28.3	26.1
Average hours worked per week by full-time workers	hours	38.8	39.1	39.7	39.7	39.7	39.8	39.9	40.6	40.3	40.7	40.9
Average weekly hours of paid overtime per employee	hours	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.3	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.2

INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS	Units	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
Trade union membership rate	%	na	45.6	na	41.6	na	40.5	na	39.6	na	35.0	na
Working days lost due to industrial disputes per 1,000 employees	days	228	242	223	269	190	r207	r248	r147	r100	r76	79

UNEMPLOYMENT	Units	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
Total unemployed	'000	619.4	591.5	635.1	610.5	534.6	513.7	709.0	881.7	940.5	915.5	794.6
Long-term unemployed	'000	192.5	172.1	176.8	169.1	145.6	116.4	149.5	255.7	336.3	334.8	273.6
Unemployment rate	%	8.6	7.9	8.3	7.8	6.6	6.2	8.4	10.4	11.0	10.5	8.9
Youth unemployment rate	%	21.3	19.9	20.3	18.9	15.7	14.9	20.0	23.8	r24.4	23.8	20.9
Youth unemployment/population ratio	%	12.8	12.1	12.3	11.2	9.4	9.1	11.7	13.3	13.5	13.3	12.3
Median duration of unemployment	weeks	r20.9	r19.3	r18.6	r17.7	r15.9	r12.3	r14.3	r23.4	r27.4	27.5	23.8

NOT IN LABOUR FORCE	Units	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
Discouraged jobseekers	'000	83.0	83.6	94.4	83.8	76.1	100.9	138.2	145.6	147.4	106.5	111.9

Reference periods: All data are annual averages for the year ending 30th June except for average weekly hours of paid overtime per employee, trade union membership rate, working days lost due to industrial disputes per 1,000 employees, and discouraged jobseekers.

Work — state summary

LABOUR FORCE	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Total labour force	'000	1994–95	2 957.7	2 230.4	1 620.1	721.8	883.1	220.5	87.7	166.3	8 887.7
Participation rate	%	1994–95	62.0	63.1	64.6	61.8	66.5	60.2	72.0	72.6	63.3
Male participation rate	%	1994–95	72.6	73.9	74.8	71.5	77.2	71.3	78.0	79.7	73.8
Female participation rate	%	1994–95	51.8	52.6	54.6	52.4	56.0	49.4	65.8	65.7	53.2
Women (of labour force)	%	1994–95	42.5	42.6	42.7	43.2	42.2	41.7	44.6	46.1	42.7

PAID WORK	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Total employed	'000	1994–95	2 703.8	2 015.9	1 476.6	648.5	815.7	197.0	81.2	154.4	8 093.1
Part-time employed (of total employed)	%	1994–95	23.0	25.0	24.3	26.8	25.8	27.2	19.8	24.0	24.4
Employment/population ratio	%	1994–95	56.7	57.0	58.9	55.5	61.4	53.7	66.7	67.4	57.7
Employed in service industries (of employed)	%	1994–95	72.4	70.5	70.4	69.7	69.7	70.6	78.7	88.3	71.4
Employed in manufacturing industries (of employed)	%	1994–95	13.8	17.0	12.2	16.2	10.2	12.4	5.1	3.5	13.8
Part-time employed who prefer more hours (of part-time employed)	%	1994–95	25.3	25.5	27.9	30.2	23.5	28.5	24.8	25.9	26.1
Average hours worked per week by full-time workers	hours	1994–95	40.8	41.0	41.7	40.4	41.3	39.8	41.0	38.7	40.9
Average weekly hours of paid overtime per employee	hours	1995	1.1	1.3	1.1	1.1	1.3	0.9	0.9	0.5	1.2

INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Trade union membership rate	%	1994	35.6	34.7	34.3	41.4	27.9	42.9	29.7	36.7	35.0
Working days lost due to industrial disputes per 1,000 employees	days	1995	48	72	148	28	150	22	48	9	79

UNEMPLOYMENT	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Total unemployed	'000	1994–95	254.0	214.4	143.5	73.3	67.4	23.6	6.5	11.9	794.6
Long-term unemployed	'000	1994–95	94.6	81.9	37.6	28.6	16.9	9.9	1.4	2.6	273.6
Unemployment rate	%	1994–95	8.6	9.6	8.9	10.2	7.6	10.7	7.4	7.2	8.9
Youth unemployment rate	%	1994–95	19.9	22.6	20.6	25.2	16.7	24.9	20.2	22.0	20.9
Youth unemployment/population ratio	%	1994–95	11.6	12.3	13.1	14.5	10.9	14.8	10.4	13.4	12.3
Median duration of unemployment	weeks	1994–95	26.2	28.3	18.3	29.5	15.8	33.6	12.3	17.1	23.8

NOT IN LABOUR FORCE	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Discouraged jobseekers	'000	1995	41.0	31.8	15.7	9.4	8.5	3.5	*0.5	1.5	111.9

Reference periods: All data are annual averages for the year ending 30th June except for average weekly hours of paid overtime per employee, trade union membership rate, working days lost due to industrial disputes per 1,000 employees, and discouraged jobseekers.

Work — definitions and references

Average hours worked per week by full-time workers — average hours worked, including overtime, by full-time workers during the survey reference week. The hours are those stated by survey respondents and are not necessarily the hours paid for.
Reference: The Labour Force, Australia (6203.0)

Average weekly hours paid overtime per employee — total overtime hours paid for divided by the total number of employees, including those who were not paid for any overtime. Overtime is time worked in excess of award, standard or agreed hours of work for which payment is received. Figures are the annual average of quarterly figures.
Reference: Job Vacancies and Overtime, Australia (6354.0)

Discouraged jobseekers — people who wanted to work and who were available to start work within four weeks but whose main reason for not taking active steps to find work was that they believed they would not be able to find a job for reasons of: age; language or ethnicity; schooling; training; skills or experience; no jobs in their locality or line of work; or they considered that there were no jobs at all available.
Reference: Persons Not in the Labour Force, Australia (6220.0)

Employed — persons aged 15 and over who worked during the reference week for pay, profit, commission, payment in kind or without pay in a family business, or who had a job but were not at work.
Reference: The Labour Force, Australia (6203.0)

Employees — employed persons who worked for wages or salary in the reference period.
Reference: The Labour Force, Australia (6203.0)

Employment/population ratio — the number of employed persons in a group expressed as a proportion of the civilian population in the same group.
Reference: The Labour Force, Australia (6203.0)

Full-time workers — employed persons who usually worked 35 hours a week or more and others who, although usually working less than 35 hours a week, worked 35 hours or more during the reference week.
Reference: The Labour Force, Australia (6203.0)

Labour force — all persons aged 15 and over who, during the reference week, were employed, or who were not employed but had actively looked for work and were available to start work.
Reference: The Labour Force, Australia (6203.0)

Long-term unemployed — people unemployed for 52 weeks or longer.
Reference: The Labour Force, Australia (6203.0)

Manufacturing industries — the manufacturing division of the *Australian and New Zealand Standard Industrial Classification* (1292.0).
Reference: The Labour Force, Australia (6203.0)

Median duration of unemployment — the period of unemployment at which half of the unemployed had been unemployed for more weeks and half had been unemployed for fewer weeks.
Reference: The Labour Force, Australia (6203.0)

Participation rate — for any group, the labour force expressed as a percentage of the civilian population in the same group.
Reference: The Labour Force, Australia (6203.0)

Part-time employed — employed persons who usually worked less than 35 hours a week and who did so during the reference week.
Reference: The Labour Force, Australia (6203.0)

Part-time employed who prefer more hours — part-time employed who indicated they would prefer to work more hours.
Reference: The Labour Force, Australia (6203.0)

Service industries — the combination of the following divisions of the *Australian and New Zealand Standard Industrial Classification (1292.0)*: wholesale trade; retail trade; accommodation, cafes and restaurants; transport and storage; communication services; finance and insurance; property and business services; government administration and defence; education; health and community services; cultural and recreational services; and personal and other services.
Reference: The Labour Force, Australia (6203.0)

Trade union membership rate — the number of employees with membership in a trade union in connection with their main job divided by total employees.
Reference: Trade Union Members, Australia (6325.0)

Unemployed — persons aged 15 and over who were not employed during the reference week, but who had actively looked for work and were available to start work.
Reference: The Labour Force, Australia (6203.0)

Unemployment rate — the number unemployed expressed as a proportion of the labour force. Separate rates may be calculated for sub-groups of the population.
Reference: The Labour Force, Australia (6203.0)

Working days lost due to industrial disputes — total working days lost by employees due to industrial disputes during the year.
Reference: Industrial Disputes, Australia (6322.0)

Youth unemployment/population ratio — the number of unemployed people aged 15–19, expressed as a proportion of all people aged 15–19.
Reference: The Labour Force, Australia (6203.0)

Youth unemployment rate — the number of unemployed people aged 15–19, expressed as a proportion of people aged 15–19 in the labour force.
Reference: The Labour Force, Australia (6203.0)

Youth employment

PAID WORK

In 1995, 85% of young people who were in the labour force had a job, and most worked full-time.

The employment patterns of young people are quite different from those of older people. Many young people combine part-time work with full-time study, either at school or in further education, and it is often not until they reach the upper end of the youth age range that they take their first full-time job (see *From school to work* pp. 79–81).

The employment experiences of young people can have an important impact on their later employment prospects. Young people seeking their first full-time job may be advantaged by having had some part-time work experience while completing their education. For example, part-time work experience may have indicated the type of career they would like to pursue, and they may have references from previous employers.

Labour force status

In 1995, 72% of young people were in the labour force compared to 68% in 1975. While these rates were similar, the patterns within the labour force were quite different. In 1975, 81% of young people in the labour force worked full-time while 10% worked part-time. In 1995 these proportions were 55% and 30% respectively. These differences are related to the increase in educational participation of young people over the period. There was also an increase in youth unemployment from 9% to 15%. (see Australian Social Trends 1995 pp. 98–103 *Youth unemployment*).

Among 15–19 year olds, 59% were in the labour force in 1995. Of these 47% were employed part-time. For 20–24 years olds, many of whom had completed their education, 83% were in the labour force and of these 69% were working full-time.

Youth and employment

In this review the terms *youth* and *young people* refer to people aged 15–24.

Employed people are those who worked during the reference week for pay, profit, commission, payment in kind or without pay in a family business, or who had a job but were not at work.

People in the labour force are those who were employed during the reference week and those who were not employed but were looking for work and available to start work during the reference week.

Getting a job

Young people often have difficulties obtaining their first jobs. They may lack the experience necessary to obtain employment or they may lack the knowledge of how to look for a job and the experience in presenting themselves to prospective employers.

Youth labour force

	1975			1995		
Labour force status	Aged 15–19	Aged 20–24	Aged 15–24	Aged 15–19	Aged 20–24	Aged 15–24
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Employed full-time	73.7	86.4	80.8	32.2	68.8	54.6
Employed part-time	13.4	7.6	10.2	47.2	19.2	30.1
Unemployed	12.9	5.9	9.0	20.6	12.0	15.4
Labour force	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
Labour force participation rate	58.7	77.6	68.0	59.3	83.2	72.0
	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000
Labour force	**706.8**	**894.7**	**1 601.5**	**751.8**	**1 186.4**	**1 938.2**

Source: *Labour Force Survey* (6203.0 and unpublished data)

Young people who started a job for wages or salary during the previous year, July 1994

Method of job attainment	Aged 15–19	Aged 20–24	Aged 15–24
	%	%	%
Jobseeker approached employer	*81.4*	*80.8*	*81.1*
Had no prior knowledge that the job was available	*42.8*	*38.4*	*40.6*
First step taken was –			
Contacted likely employers	25.8	22.1	23.9
Contacted friends or relatives	7.7	5.6	6.6
Checked CES noticeboards, registered with the CES	4.6	3.7	4.1
Other	4.6	7.1	5.9
Had prior knowledge that the job was available	*38.7*	*42.4*	*40.6*
Through CES	5.0	4.4	4.7
Through newspaper advertisements	9.5	14.0	11.8
Through friends, relatives or company contacts	19.3	18.9	19.1
Through other sources	4.8	5.0	4.9
Employer approached jobseeker or other methods	18.6	19.2	18.9
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	'000	'000	'000
Total	**367.0**	**381.1**	**748.1**

Source: *Successful and Unsuccessful Job Search Experience, Australia* (6245.0)

In July 1994, 47% of young employed people had started a job in the previous twelve months. They found these jobs in many different ways although most (81%) approached the employer rather than the employer approaching them. 41% approached the employer knowing from a variety of sources that the job was available. 24% went directly to the employer without knowing the job was available and a further 17% approached the employer without knowing that the job was available but after consulting with friends, relatives, the CES etc.

The method of job attainment used differed slightly according to the age of the jobseeker. People aged 15–19 were more likely than those aged 20–24 to approach an employer when they had no prior knowledge that the job was available (43% compared to 38%), a reflection of the greater incidence of part-time work among 15–19 year olds. Those aged 20–24 were more likely to respond to newspaper advertisements (14% compared to 10%). Both groups were equally likely to have been approached by an employer regarding a job (19%).

In July 1994, 80% of young people who had started a job in the previous year reported that they had a preferred occupation. Of these, people who were already working before starting a new job were more likely than those who had been out of work to have gained employment in their chosen occupation. Among those who changed employers, 87% started a new job in their chosen occupation. For those who were out of work prior to starting their job, 73% gained work in their chosen occupation.

Industry of employment

In 1995, the wholesale and retail trade industry provided the most employment for young people. This was followed by the recreation, personal and other services industry and the manufacturing industry. These three industries employed 61% of all young people.

The industry distribution of employed youth has changed in the last twenty years although in both 1975 and 1995 wholesale and retail trade was the largest employer of young people. In 1995 it employed 34% of young people, up from 23% in 1975. Youth employment in recreation, personal and other services more than doubled over the period, from 6% in 1975 to 14% in 1995. In contrast, employment in manufacturing decreased, from 20% to 13%. This structural change is

Industries(a) of employed youth

Industry	1975	1995
	%	%
Wholesale and retail trade	23.2	34.4
Recreation, personal and other services	6.2	13.6
Manufacturing	19.8	13.0
Finance, property and business services	10.7	10.9
Community services	12.3	10.7
Construction	7.8	6.8
Agriculture, forestry, fishing and hunting	5.3	3.3
Transport and storage	3.8	2.7
Public administration and defence	6.0	2.6
Other industries	5.0	2.1
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**
	'000	'000
Total employed youth	**1 457.5**	**1 625.4**

(a) Australian Standard Industrial Classification.

Source: *Labour Force Survey* (unpublished data)

related to the shift towards part-time work, particularly for 15–19 year olds.

Youth occupations

In 1995, 31% of employed youth were salespersons and personal service workers. A further 21% were labourers and related workers, 17% were tradespersons and 15% were clerks. As with industry, the shift towards part-time work has affected the occupational structure. Between 1986 and 1995, the proportion of employed youth who were salespersons and personal service workers increased from 24% to 31% and the proportion who were labourers and related workers increased from 19% to 21%. Decreases occurred among clerks, from 20% to 15%, and tradespersons, from 20% to 17%.

The occupations of young people vary according to age. In 1995, people aged 15–19 were almost twice as likely as people aged 20–24 to be employed as salespersons and personal service workers, or labourers and related workers. This is largely due to the availability of part-time work in these occupation groups. Conversely, people aged 20–24 were more than twice as likely to work as clerks, professionals, para-professionals, or managers and administrators. This reflects the predominantly full-time nature of this work, as well as people of this age being more likely to have higher educational attainment and more work experience, and therefore being

Youth occupations

	1986			1995		
Occupation	Aged 15–19	Aged 20–24	Aged 15–24	Aged 15–19	Aged 20–24	Aged 15–24
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Salespersons and personal service workers	33.1	18.1	24.1	43.2	24.4	31.2
Labourers and related workers	23.0	15.7	18.6	27.8	16.7	20.7
Tradespersons	20.0	19.3	19.6	14.6	18.2	16.9
Clerks	16.8	22.4	20.2	8.7	19.1	15.3
Professionals	1.3	8.0	5.3	1.2	9.8	6.7
Plant and machine operators etc.	2.8	7.3	5.5	2.5	5.0	4.1
Para-professionals	2.1	6.2	4.6	1.5	4.5	3.4
Managers and administrators	1.0	3.0	2.2	0.4	2.3	1.6
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total employed youth	**634.4**	**956.7**	**1 591.1**	**586.6**	**1 038.9**	**1 625.5**

Source: *Labour Force Survey* (unpublished data)

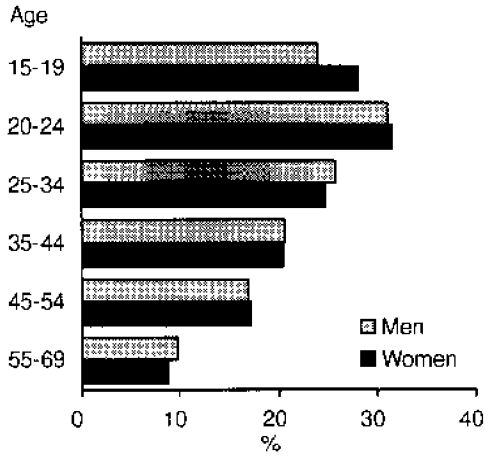
more qualified than younger people to undertake such work.

Job mobility

People aged 15–24 are more likely than any other age group to change jobs (ie to change employer or to change location with the same employer). This is related both to the proportion who work part-time while studying, and who therefore may have less commitment to a particular job than older people, and to the proportion who have completed their education and change jobs as they settle into the pursuit of a career.

In February 1994, 29% of young people had changed their job in the previous 12 months. People aged 20–24 were most likely to have changed their job (31%), followed by those aged 15–19 (26%). Similar proportions of young women and men changed jobs (30% and 29% respectively).

Proportion of people who changed their jobs, 1994(a)



(a) Refers to the year ending February 1994.

Source: *Labour Mobility, Australia* (6209.0)

Work and Indigenous people

PAID WORK

In 1994, 58% of Indigenous people aged 15 and over were in the labour force. CDEP initiatives played an important role in providing employment, accounting for 26% of all jobs held by Indigenous people.

In modern societies the economic well-being of an individual and their family is largely determined by their employment. Employment is also an important factor in the social status and privilege that an individual and their family enjoys in a community.

Indigenous communities have experienced higher levels of unemployment than the total Australian population. There are many reasons for this. One factor is the low level of educational qualifications held by Indigenous people (see *The education of Indigenous people* pp. 75–78).

Another factor is the geographic distribution of jobs. The scarcity of employment opportunities has been addressed by the implementation of the Community Development Employment Projects (CDEP) scheme which has been operating since 1977[1]. This scheme provides government-funded jobs for Indigenous people who would otherwise receive an unemployment allowance. CDEP is particularly important in rural areas where it accounts for 53% of all jobs held by Indigenous people.

Labour force participation

In June 1994 there were 185,000 Indigenous people aged 15 years and over in Australia, representing 1.3% of the adult population. The total number of Indigenous people in the labour force was 105,000, just over 1% of the total labour force. The Indigenous labour

Work and location

Labour force refers to people aged 15 and over who were either employed or unemployed.

Labour force participation rate is the total number of people in the labour force (either employed or unemployed) expressed as a percentage of the total number of people aged 15 and over.

Unemployment rate is the number unemployed expressed as a percentage of the labour force.

Long-term unemployment is the number of people unemployed for 52 weeks or more expressed as a percentage of those who are unemployed.

Community Development Employment Projects (CDEP) operate through grants from the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission (ATSIC) to Indigenous communities. Unemployed Indigenous people forgo their Department of Social Security entitlements and instead work for a local Indigenous community organisation in return for wages. Because CDEP is funded indirectly by the government and makes a significant contribution to Indigenous employment, it is treated separately.

Capital city comprises all state and territory capital city statistical divisions.

Other urban comprises all centres with a total population of 1,000 and over, except capital cities.

Rural comprises rural areas and towns with a total population of less than 1,000 people. Most remote Indigenous communities are included in this category.

People in the labour force, 1994

Population group	Employed		Unemployed	Labour force	Labour force participation rate
	CDEP	Non-CDEP			
	'000	'000	'000	'000	%
Indigenous men	11.5	28.4	24.1	64.0	72.3
Indigenous women	5.2	20.0	16.1	41.3	44.4
Indigenous persons	**16.8**	**48.3**	**40.2**	**105.2**	**58.0**
Total men	n.a.	4 534.8	498.7	5 033.5	73.4
Total women	n.a.	3 357.9	340.5	3 698.4	52.3
Total persons	**n.a.**	**7 892.7**	**839.2**	**8 731.9**	**62.7**

Source: *National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Survey, 1994: Detailed findings* (4190.0); *The Labour Force Australia, June 1994* (6203.0)

Type of Indigenous employment, 1994

Type of employment	Capital city	Other urban	Rural	Total
	%	%	%	%
CDEP	3.7	19.1	52.7	25.8
Non-CDEP	96.3	80.9	47.4	74.2
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total employed	**19.3**	**24.0**	**21.8**	**65.1**

Source: *National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Survey, 1994: Detailed findings* (4190.0)

force participation rate was 58% compared to 63% for the total population.

The labour force participation rate of Indigenous men at 72% was similar to that of all men. However, the proportion employed (including CDEP employment) was considerably lower, 62% compared to 90%. Among women, Indigenous labour force participation was considerably lower than that of all women, 44% compared to 52%.

Labour force participation of Indigenous people varied according to their geographic location. Indigenous people who lived in capital cities had the highest participation rate at 62%, compared to 59% for those living in other urban areas and 54% for those living in rural areas.

Employment

In 1994 there were 65,100 employed Indigenous people. This represents 62% of the total Indigenous labour force. Of these employed Indigenous people 30% lived in capital cities, 37% in other urban areas and 33% in rural areas.

CDEP employment accounted for 26% of all Indigenous employment but was most common in rural areas where it accounted for 53% of Indigenous employment. In contrast, CDEP employment accounted for 19% of employment in other urban areas and 4% in capital cities. The lower unemployment levels experienced in rural areas are largely attributable to CDEP initiatives.

Men accounted for 69% of all CDEP employment; 87% in capital cities, 67% in other urban areas and 68% in rural areas.

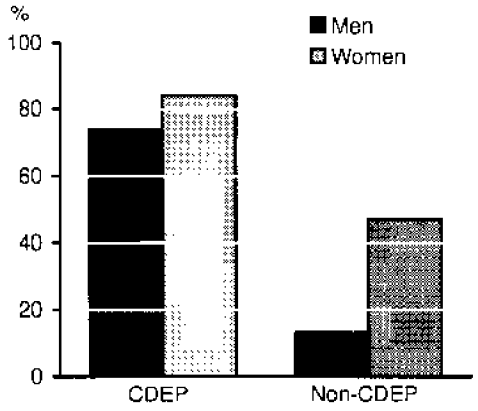
Hours of work

As in the total Australian labour force, Indigenous men are more likely to work full-time (35 hours or more per week) than Indigenous women. 69% of Indigenous men worked full-time in 1994 compared to 46% of Indigenous women. This difference in the number of hours worked explains some of the difference in income between men and women (see *Income of Indigenous people* pp. 121–125).

Indigenous people employed in CDEP were more likely to be employed part-time than other employed Indigenous people. 74% of men and 84% of women employed in CDEP were employed on a part-time basis compared to 13% of men and 47% of women in non-CDEP employment.

73% of employed Indigenous people were satisfied with their working hours and 27% wanted to work more hours. The highest rate of employed people wanting to work more hours was in rural areas (35%). This contrasts with capital cities and other urban areas where 19% and 27% respectively wanted to work more hours. The dependence of rural

Proportion of Indigenous people employed part-time(a), 1994



(a) Expressed as a proportion of those employed in CDEP or non-CDEP.

Source: *National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Survey, 1994* (unpublished data)

Employed Indigenous people wanting to work more hours, 1994

Preferences for working hours	Capital city	Other urban	Rural	Total
	%	%	%	%
Want to work more hours	*19.4*	*26.9*	*35.2*	*27.5*
Employed full-time	10.5	6.7	4.9	7.2
Employed part-time	8.8	20.3	30.3	20.3
Does not want to work more hours	*80.6*	*73.1*	*64.8*	*73.5*
Employed full-time	66.4	56.0	36.7	52.5
Employed part-time	14.3	17.1	28.2	20.0
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**

Source: *National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Survey, 1994* (unpublished data)

communities on CDEP initiatives to provide employment coupled with the high levels of part-time employment provided by CDEP are key factors in the high rate of rural people wanting to work more hours.

Unemployment

Unemployment affects a person's income, health and sense of well-being. The high rates of unemployment experienced by Indigenous people have affected the health and welfare of the Indigenous community overall[2].

In June 1994 there were 40,200 unemployed Indigenous people, giving an overall Indigenous unemployment rate of 38%. In comparison, the unemployment rate for the total Australian population was 10%. Indigenous women had a similar unemployment rate to Indigenous men (39% compared to 38%) and most (89% of men and 64% of women) were looking for full-time work.

Indigenous unemployment rates varied according to geographic location. People living in other urban areas experienced the highest rate of unemployment (46%) compared to capital cities (36%) and rural areas (29%).

Long-term unemployment

In 1994, 19,900 Indigenous people had been unemployed for 12 months or more. These people accounted for half of all unemployed Indigenous people. In comparison 36% of all unemployed Australians had been long-term unemployed[3]. Long-term unemployment rates for Indigenous men and women were similar.

While unemployment rates varied by geographic locations, the proportion of Indigenous people unemployed for 12 months or more did not vary significantly.

Voluntary work

Traditional life-style activities such as hunting and gathering and unpaid community work are not recognised in standard labour force definitions. However, they make an important contribution to Indigenous culture.

In 1994, 49,500 Indigenous people were involved in voluntary work giving a participation rate in voluntary work of 28%.

Unemployed Indigenous people, 1994

Unemployment	Capital City	Other urban	Rural	Total
	%	%	%	%
Unemployment rate	36.1	45.8	29.2	38.2
Long-term unemployment(a)	47.6	51.1	50.0	50.0
	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total unemployed	**10.9**	**20.3**	**9.0**	**40.2**

(a) Proportion of all unemployed Indigenous people.

Source: *National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Survey, 1994: Detailed findings* (4190.0)

Indigenous people undertaking voluntary work(a), 1994

Type of voluntary work	Capital city	Other urban	Rural	Total
	%	%	%	%
Hunting, fishing or gathering bush food	19.7	29.4	61.6	38.9
Working for community or sporting organisations	43.0	34.5	24.2	32.8
Working on committees	34.8	32.2	23.6	29.7
Working at a school or with youth groups	27.6	23.8	14.0	21.1
Caring for sick or aged	16.2	18.1	10.4	14.8
Other	10.3	7.7	3.4	6.8
Total(b)	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	'000	'000	'000	'000
Does voluntary work	11.7	19.7	18.1	49.5
Does not do voluntary work	37.1	55.1	37.9	130.1

(a) Persons aged 15 and over.
(b) Percentages do not add to total because those who undertake voluntary work may participate in more than one type of activity.

Source: *National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Survey 1994* (unpublished data)

The most common type of voluntary work was hunting, fishing or gathering bush food. 39% of those who participated in voluntary work were involved in this activity. Not surprisingly, participating in hunting, fishing or gathering bush food was most common in rural areas. In other areas the most common activity was working for community or sporting organisations.

Of those who hunted, fished or gathered bush food, 63% were men. 73% of those who hunted, fished or gathered bush food reported that they spent ten hours or less per week on these activities.

Of the 33% of people who worked for community or sporting organisations, 54% were men. In contrast, of the 30% of people who worked on committees, 60% were women.

47% of those involved in any voluntary activity dedicated between one and five hours per week to such activities and 76% spent ten hours or less.

Endnotes

1 Saunders, W. (1993) *The rise and rise of the CDEP scheme: an Aboriginal 'workfare' program in times of persistent unemployment* Centre for Aboriginal Economic Policy Research, No. 54/1993.

2 Daly, A.E. and Smith, D.E. (1995) *The economic status of indigenous Australian families* Centre for Aboriginal Economic Policy Research, No. 93/1995.

3 *The Labour Force Australia June 1994* (6203.0).

Sick leave

PAID WORK

In 1995, 10% of employees took sick leave for their most recent absence from work in the two-week reference period.

Under the Australian industrial awards system most employees have the right to paid leave for sickness as well as for a range of other reasons. However, unplanned absence from work on sick leave can be costly to employers through lost production, additional wages for replacement staff or overtime wages for current staff. Similarly, absence from work on sick leave may be costly to employees in terms of loss of income and productivity.

Sick leave rates are influenced by leave provisions which in turn differ according to employee working arrangements. For example, casual employees are not entitled to paid sick leave and people employed part-time generally have fewer provisions for sick leave than those employed full-time. The taking of sick leave also varies with factors such as sector of employment, occupation, sex, age and family status, especially in those families with dependants.

In 1995, 10% of all employees (652,000 people) took sick leave for their most recent absence from work in the two-week reference period. This proportion was similar in 1993 (9%). In both years, just over 60% were away from work for one whole day or less and less than 2% were away for 10–14 whole days. In 1995, 7% of employees who took sick leave stated that their main reason for doing so was something other than attending a medical or dental appointment, or their own ill health, physical disability, or pregnancy. The most

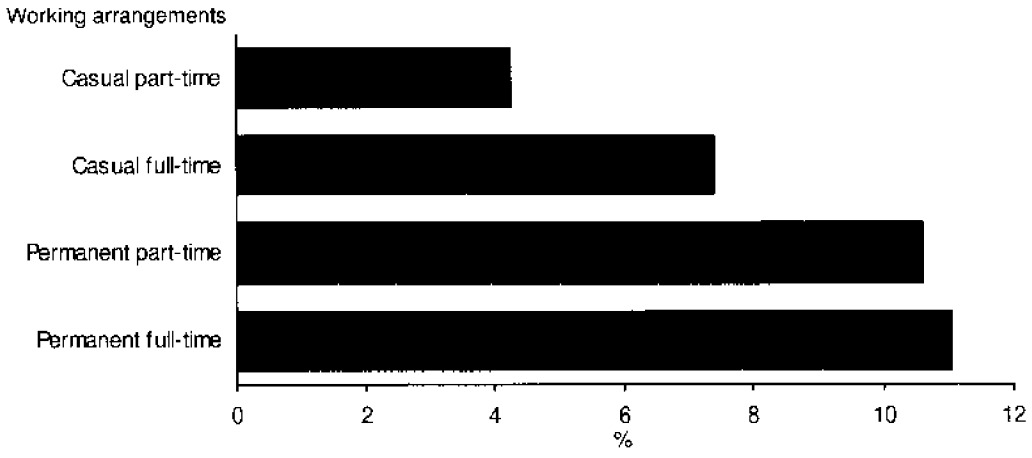
Sick leave

Sick leave is an absence from work during normal working hours lasting over three hours and taken under sick leave provisions. Data in this review are from the Survey of Working Arrangements and only include the most recent absence during the two-week reference period in August 1995. Seasonal variations in absence rates therefore may not be reflected in these data.

Data in this review relate to employees, ie people aged 15 and over who worked for an employer for wages or salary or in their own business (either with or without employees) if that business was a limited liability company, in their main job, ie in the job in which most hours were usually worked. People still attending school are excluded.

The *sick leave rate* is the number of employees in a particular sub-group who took sick leave, divided by the total number of employees in the sub-group. Working arrangements (ie permanent full-time, permanent part-time, casual full-time and casual part-time) affect sick leave entitlements and hence sick leave rates. Because of this *standardised sick leave rates*, which are the sick leave rates which would occur in different sub-groups of the employee population if they had the same working arrangements composition as the total employee population, are also presented.

Proportion of employees who took sick leave, 1995



Source: *Working Arrangements, Australia* (6342.0.40.001)

Employees who took sick leave, 1995

	Sick leave rate			Standardised sick leave rate		
Age	Men	Women	Persons	Men	Women	Persons
	%	%	%	%	%	%
15–24	10.6	12.4	11.5	11.0	13.7	12.2
25–34	10.5	11.4	10.9	9.1	11.8	10.7
35–44	9.1	9.9	9.5	8.4	11.0	9.3
45–54	7.5	8.1	7.7	6.8	8.1	7.5
55–64	8.0	7.0	7.6	7.9	8.6	7.8
Total(a)	**9.3**	**10.3**	**9.7**	**8.9**	**11.1**	**9.7**

(a) Includes employees aged 65 and over.

Source: *Survey of Working Arrangements* (unpublished data)

common other reasons were caring for a sick or disabled child (2.3%) and caring for another sick, disabled or aged person (1.3%).

11% of permanent employees, whether full-time or part-time, took sick leave compared to 7% of casual full-timers and 4% of casual part-timers. These differences are mainly due to the absence of paid sick leave provisions for casual employees.

Sex and age

Overall, men had a sick leave rate of 9% and women of 10%. However, male and female employment patterns are quite different. In 1995, 81% of male employees were permanent full-time compared to 54% of female employees.

After standardising for working arrangements the male sick leave rate remained at 9% while the female rate increased to 11%, suggesting that women are more likely than men to take

Sector and occupation of employees who took sick leave, 1995

	Sick leave rate			Standardised sick leave rate		
Sector and occupation	Men	Women	Persons	Men	Women	Persons
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Sector of employment						
Public	11.5	13.4	12.4	10.7	13.1	11.5
Private	8.6	9.2	8.9	8.3	10.1	9.0
Occupation						
Managers and administrators	5.2	7.5	5.7	4.1	7.3	5.1
Professionals	9.4	12.9	11.0	8.2	12.5	10.2
Para-professionals	11.4	11.6	11.5	11.1	11.3	10.9
Tradespersons	10.4	8.0	10.1	8.5	8.3	9.2
Clerks	9.9	11.1	10.9	10.0	11.4	10.7
Salespersons and personal service workers	8.3	8.4	8.4	8.9	9.4	9.2
Plant and machine operators, and drivers	8.9	11.3	9.2	8.6	11.4	8.7
Labourers and related workers	10.0	9.0	9.6	10.1	11.1	10.2
Total	**9.3**	**10.3**	**9.7**	**8.9**	**11.1**	**9.7**

Source: *Survey of Working Arrangements* (unpublished data)

time off work for illness. The highest standardised sick leave rate (14%) was recorded for women aged 15-24. Men in this age group also had a high standardised rate (11%). This is consistent with the general finding that young workers have higher rates of workplace absence than older workers[1].

The difference between the male and female standardised sick leave rates is more than twice as high for those aged 15–44 as for those aged 45 and over. It is likely that child-bearing contributes to the higher rates for younger women.

Sector of employment

In 1995, the sick leave rate for private sector employees was 9% compared to 12% for public sector employees. After standardising for working arrangements the sick leave rates for both sectors changed marginally and the difference reduced slightly. The difference between the standardised rates reflects the generally greater sick leave provisions of the public sector and the greater job security. In August 1994, almost 100% of full-time and 98% of part-time permanent public sector employees had paid sick leave provisions compared to 98% and 93% respectively in the private sector[2].

Occupation

Sick leave rates vary by occupation, ranging from 6% for managers and administrators to 11% for para-professionals, professionals and clerks. When standardised to remove the effects of different working arrangements the lowest rate (5%) was again recorded for managers and administrators and the highest rate (11%) for para-professionals and clerks. These differences may reflect the generally greater commitment to work expected of managers and administrators.

The largest differences between the standardised sick leave rates of men and women were among professionals (12% for women and 8% for men) and managers and administrators (7% for women and 4% for men).

Family status

Lone parents with children under 15 had the highest sick leave rate (12%) followed by people living with non-family members and non-dependent children living with their parents (both 11%). The lowest sick leave rate (9%) was for lone parents with no children under 15. After standardising for working arrangements the sick leave rate for lone parents with children under 15 increased to 14% while the sick leave rates for all other groups hardly changed. This implies that lone parents with children under 15 are far more

Family status of employees who took sick leave, 1995

	Sick leave rates			Standardised sick leave rates		
Family status	Men	Women	Persons	Men	Women	Persons
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Family member(a)	*9.2*	*10.0*	*9.6*	*8.7*	*11.0*	9.6
Husband or wife	9.0	9.8	9.4	8.1	10.7	9.2
With children under 15	9.5	9.5	9.5	8.1	11.4	9.5
Without children under 15	8.3	10.1	9.2	7.8	10.3	9.0
Lone parent	9.3*	10.9	10.6	8.7*	12.3	11.5
With children under 15	10.1*	12.2	11.9	9.1*	14.9	13.9
Without children under 15	8.5*	8.8	8.8	10.3*	9.4	8.9
Non-dependent child	10.4	12.1	11.0	10.2	12.0	10.9
Non-family member	10.0	11.4	10.6	9.8	11.6	10.5
Lives alone	9.4	10.7	9.9	8.7	10.5	9.4
Lives with others	10.5	12.1	11.2	10.6	12.3	11.3
Total(b)	**9.3**	**10.3**	**9.7**	**8.9**	**11.1**	**9.7**

(a) Includes other family members.
(b) Includes those for whom family status could not be determined.

Source: *Survey of Working Arrangements* (unpublished data)

likely than other people to take sick leave. The five percentage point difference between the standardised sick leave rates for lone parents with and without children under 15, suggests that as their children grow up lone parents become less likely than other people to take sick leave.

The sick leave rates for parents of children under 15 were the same for mothers and fathers in two parent families. However, when standardised for working arrangements, the rate for mothers was higher than the rate for fathers suggesting that mothers are more likely to take sick leave than fathers. Similarly, lone mothers of children under 15 were more likely than lone fathers to take sick leave but when the children were older, lone fathers were slightly more likely than lone mothers to take sick leave. This was the only group where the standardised sick leave rate for men was higher than the rate for women.

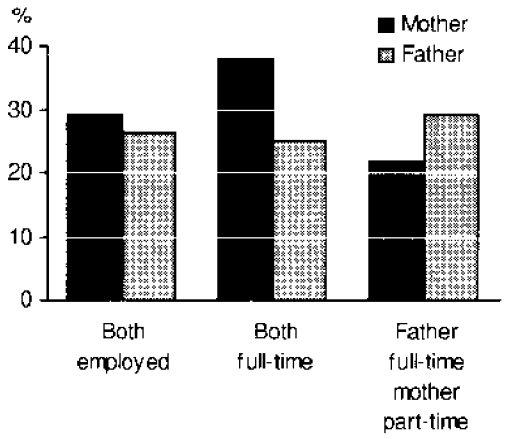
Family responsibilities

In recent decades more employees have chosen to combine employment and family responsibilities. Family responsibilities, such as caring for sick children, may contribute to workplace absence if an employed parent cannot make alternative care arrangements. Until recently this responsibility has been mainly associated with women because they have traditionally had the main responsibility for family care[3].

The 1993 Child Care Survey collected data on the child care arrangements made by parents when their children aged 0–11 were sick. Of the 703,000 couple families with children under 12 where both parents were employed, 410,000 had sick children in the six months to June 1993. 36% of the mothers and 16% of the fathers took time off work to care for their children. 29% of the mothers who took time off work and 26% of the fathers used their own sick leave. If fathers took time off they were most likely to use sick leave while mothers were most likely to use unpaid leave (34%).

In the 147,000 families with sick children where both parents were employed full-time, 46% of the mothers and 23% of the fathers took time off work to care for the children. 38% of the mothers who took time off and

Use of sick leave by employed couples who took time off work to care for sick children, 1993



Source: *Focus on Families: Work and Family Responsibilities* (4422.0)

25% of the fathers used their own sick leave. In both cases sick leave was the most commonly used leave option.

In 61% of families with sick children the father was employed full-time and the mother part-time. In such families 31% of the mothers and 12% of the fathers took time off work to care for the children. 22% of the mothers who took time off and 29% of the fathers used sick leave.

63,000 employed lone parents had sick children in the reference period. Of the 46% who took time off work, 28% used sick leave to care for sick children.

Endnotes

1 Balchin, J. and Wooden, M. (1992) *Absence penalties and the work attendance decision* National Institute of Labour Studies Inc. Working Paper No. 120.

2 *Survey of Employment Benefits, Australia* (unpublished data).

3 VandenHeuval, A. (1995) *Absence due to family responsibilities: an examination of explanatory factors* National Institute of Labour Studies Inc. Working Paper No. 135.

Industrial disputes

INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS

In 1994, there were 560 industrial disputes, the lowest number of disputes since 1940.

Industrial relations involves four major parties: employers; employees; trade unions; and the government. When parties cannot agree about wages, managerial policy, physical working conditions or hours of work, an industrial dispute may occur. Such disputes have costs for employers (eg loss of productivity), employees (eg loss of wages and possible loss of job) and the government (eg effects on economy).

Number of disputes

In the period 1969–83, the number of industrial disputes recorded annually fluctuated considerably but was consistently higher than the number of disputes in the period 1983–94. Since 1984, there has been a steady downward trend in the number of industrial disputes. While this is part of a world-wide trend, the decline in Australia has been much greater than in other parts of the world[1]. In 1994, there were 560 industrial disputes the lowest number since 1940.

Working days lost

Displaying a similar pattern to the numbers of industrial disputes, the numbers of working days lost per 1,000 employees were consistently higher and fluctuated more in the period 1967–83 than in the period 1983–94. Disputation intensified in the first few months of 1974 but there was no significant increase in the number of disputes[2]. A combination of increased employee involvement in disputes and increased duration of disputes produced

Industrial disputes

An *industrial dispute* is a withdrawal from work by a group of employees, or a refusal by an employer or a number of employers to permit some or all of their employees to work.

This review only includes industrial disputes which involved stoppages of work of ten working days or more. Ten working days is equivalent to the amount of ordinary time worked by ten people in one day, regardless of the length of time of the stoppage. For example, 3,000 workers on strike for 2 hours would be counted as 750 working days lost (assuming they work an 8 hour day).

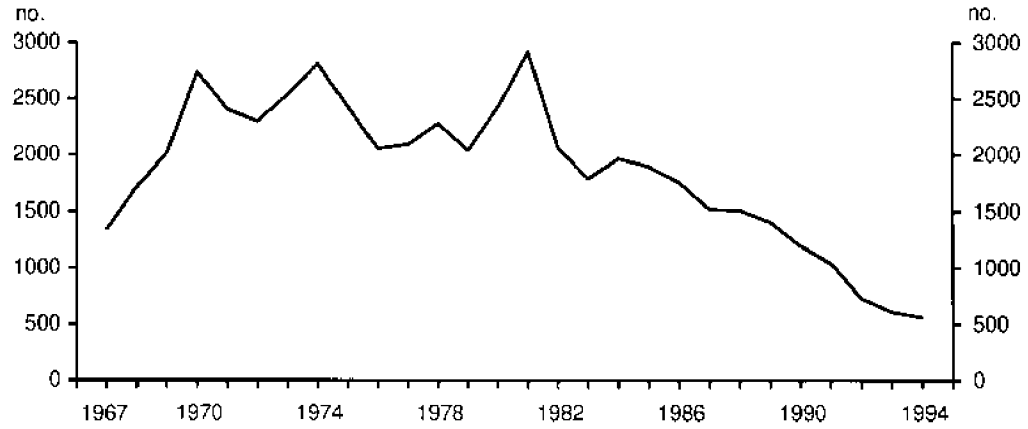
Disputes which occurred during the year encompass those disputes where any part of the dispute occurred in that year. If a dispute continues from one year to the next it is counted in both years.

Working days lost are losses due to industrial disputes only. They are a measure of the volume of disputation since they encompass not just the number of disputes but also their duration.

Disputes caused by *managerial policy* are about the exercise of managerial control by employers, eg terms and conditions of employment, award restructuring and work practices. They include most disputes over enterprise bargaining.

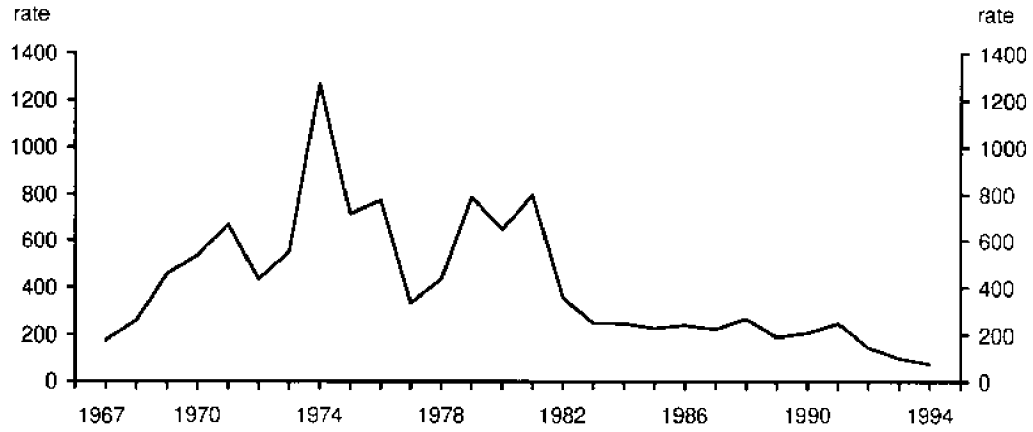
Disputes relating to *wages* are about general wage principles, eg increase or decrease in wages, variation of method of payment or combined claims relating to wages, hours or conditions of work in which the claim about wages is deemed to be the most important.

Industrial disputes



Source: *Industrial Disputes* (6322.0 and 6322.0.40.001)

Working days lost per 1,000 employees



Source: *Industrial Disputes* (6322.0 and 6322.0.40.001)

the high figure of 1,273 working days lost per 1,000 employees. This can be attributed to the high figures in Victoria (1,757) and New South Wales (1,462). In 1975, the Australian Conciliation and Arbitration Commission, with the support of the government, introduced a system of wage indexation which '...appeared to arrest the wage-price spiral for at least a time.'[3] By 1977 the number of working days lost per 1,000 employees had fallen to a low of 336. This subsequently rose to 787 in 1979 and remained about this level until 1982 when it dropped to 358.

The period 1974–83 was one of rapid and sustained increases in unemployment. The unemployment rate rose from 2% in 1973–74 to 9% in 1982–83. In 1983, the number of working days lost per 1,000 employees was 249. By 1994, this had declined to 76, the lowest number since the series was first compiled in 1967. The economic recovery in the second half of 1983 was the beginning of a long period of strong employment growth. Unemployment fell from 9% in 1982–83 to 6% in 1989–90. It then started to rise again and in 1992–93 reached a high of 11%. (see *Work — national summary table* p. 94).

Prices and incomes policy 1983–96

The *Statement of Accord* between the Australian Labor Party (ALP) and the Australian Council of Trade Unions (ACTU) was endorsed in February 1983[4]. Shortly after the ALP won the federal election the Accord became government policy. In September 1983 the Australian Conciliation and Arbitration Commission agreed to establish a centralised wage fixing system based on productivity and price movements as outlined in the Statement of Accord. The ACTU agreed to exercise restraint in wage claims in exchange for social programs.

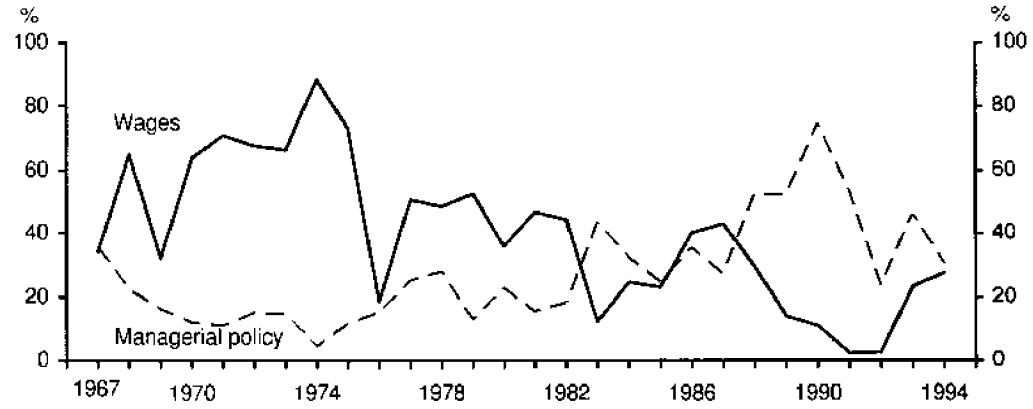
During the first three years of the Accord wages were indexed, but at the end of 1985–86 the government and the ACTU agreed to partially index wages. Subsequently, indexation was abandoned and wage adjustments were significantly below the inflation rate. In 1987 the Industrial Relations Commission recommended a two tier system. The first tier was an automatic flat increase for everyone. The second tier was related to identifiable improvement in productivity. In the following years the two tier system remained with increasing flexibility occurring. For example in 1991 the first wage increase was replaced by a tax cut[5,6]. The Accord was abandoned in March 1996 following the change of government.

Causes of disputes

Data on causes of industrial disputes only refer to the main cause of a dispute. Therefore the relative importance of all causes as perceived by both employers and employees may not be reflected. Between 1967 and 1994 managerial policy and wages together were the causes of most industrial disputes ending in a year and accounted for at least half of the working days lost. In 1967, managerial policy was the major cause of industrial disputes (572), followed by wages (316) and physical working conditions (200). In 1994, these causes were also the top three with managerial policy accounting for 317 disputes, wages accounting for 66 and physical working conditions for 61.

In both 1967 and 1994 disputes over managerial policy caused more working days lost than disputes over any other single cause. In 1967, 252,300 working days were lost due

Proportion of working days lost due to industrial disputes over wages and managerial policy



Source: *Industrial Disputes* (6322.0 and 6322.0.40.001)

to disputes over managerial policy compared to 158,900 in 1994.

Between 1967 and 1982 disputes over wages accounted for more working days lost than disputes over any other cause. In 1974, the proportion of working days lost due to disputes over wages peaked at 88%. Since 1983 disputes over managerial policy have generally accounted for more working days lost than disputes over any other cause. In 1990, the proportion of working days lost due to disputes over managerial policy peaked at 75%.

Industries

In 1994, there were 153 industrial disputes in the coal mining industry, more than a quarter of all industrial disputes and more than in any other industry. Coal mining also had a much higher rate of working days lost per 1,000 employees than any other industry (5,964).

The recorded method of settlement of a dispute is the one which is directly responsible for ending the dispute and not necessarily the method(s) responsible for settling all matters in the dispute. Consequently, the role of various industrial tribunals operating under state and federal legislation may be understated as they may not lead directly to the settlement of the dispute. Of the disputes in the coal mining industry, 69% were settled by resumption without negotiation and 65% lasted one day or less. Equivalent figures for all industrial disputes were 57% settled by resumption without negotiation and 53% lasting for one day or less.

States

The number of industrial disputes and working days lost per 1,000 employees varies considerably between the states. In 1994, New South Wales had 230 disputes, Queensland 139 and Victoria 109. Queensland lost 115

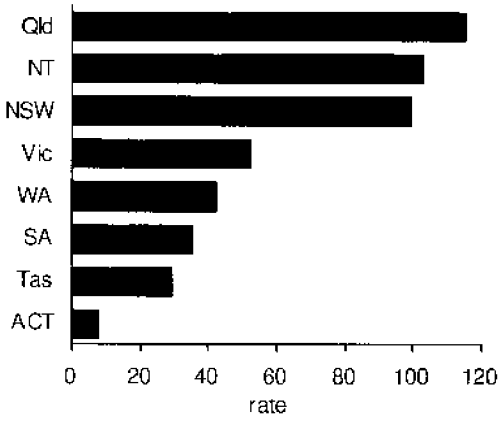
Industrial disputes and working days lost by industry, 1994

Industry	Industrial disputes	Working days lost(c)
	no.	rate
Coal mining	153	5 964
Other mining	36	323
Metal product, machinery and equipment manufacturing	99	117
Other manufacturing	68	123
Construction	24	59
Transport and storage; communication	66	137
Education; health and community services	29	63
Other industries(a)	102	16
All Industries	**560**(b)	**76**

(a) Comprises agriculture, forestry and fishing; electricity, gas and water supply; wholesale trade; retail trade; accommodation, cafes and restaurants; finance and insurance; property and business services; government administration and defence; cultural and recreational services; personal and other services.
(b) Disputes do not add to total because a dispute may affect more than one industry.
(c) Rate per 1,000 employees.

Source: *Industrial Disputes* (6321.0 and 6322.0.40.001)

Working days lost per 1,000 employees, 1994



Source: *Industrial Disputes* (6322.0.40.001)

working days per 1,000 employees, Northern Territory 103, New South Wales 99 and Victoria 52. Queensland's higher rate can be attributed to mining, particularly coal mining which lost 13,425 working days per 1,000 employees. In 1994, the Northern Territory had only 15 disputes which accounted for 103 working days lost per 1,000 employees. Disputes in mining other than coal mining, and metal product, machinery and equipment manufacturing were the main contributors.

In 1994 the method of settlement of disputes also varied by state. Resumption without negotiation was the most common method of settlement of industrial disputes for all states. It was highest in Western Australia accounting for the settlement of 70% of disputes. State legislation and joint federal and federal-state legislation were the least used methods of settling disputes, accounting for 9% and 13% respectively. State legislation was more commonly used in New South Wales accounting for the settlement of 11% of disputes. Federal and joint federal-state legislation were more commonly used in South Australia.

Endnotes

1 Chapman, B. and Gruen, F. (1990) *An analysis of the Australian consensual incomes policy: the prices and income Accord* ANU Centre for Economic Policy Research Discussion Paper No. 221.

2 Bentley, P. (1975) *Industrial relations* Committee for Economic Development of Australia Study M. series No. 40.

3 Hill, J.D. et. al. (1982) *Industrial relations: an Australian introduction* Longman Cheshire, Melbourne.

4 Stilwell, F. (1986) *The Accord and beyond* Pluto Press, Sydney.

5 Parkin, M. and Bade, R. (1990) *Macroeconomics and the Australian economy, Second edition* Allen & Unwin.

6 Phillips, P. (1995) *Evaluating the Accord(s): a comparative Canadian perspective* Journal of Industrial Relations Vol. 37 No. 4.

Income

Income — national summary

INCOME DISTRIBUTION	Units	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994
GDP per capita (1989–90 prices)	$'000	18.7	19.4	r19.9	20.1	20.8	21.4	21.8	r21.3	r21.1	21.6	22.3
Real household disposable income per capita	$'000	na	12.7	12.9	r12.7	12.9	13.4	13.8	r13.5	r13.6	r13.8	14.0
Share of gross cash income going to top quintile (of all income units)	%	na	na	45.3	na	na	na	46.2	na	na	na	na
Share of gross cash income going to bottom quintile (of all income units)	%	na	na	4.7	na	na	na	4.8	na	na	na	na
Gini coefficient (of all income units)	no.	na	na	0.41	na	na	na	0.42	na	na	na	na
Median gross weekly income of couple with dependants income units	$	na	na	550	na	na	na	755	na	na	na	na
Median gross weekly income of one parent income units	$	na	na	220	na	na	na	r279	na	na	na	na

SOURCES OF INCOME	Units	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994
Main income source from government payments (of all income units)	%	na	na	27.7	na	na	na	r26.7	na	na	na	na
Main income source from government payments (of couples with dependants income units)	%	na	na	8.4	na	na	na	8.4	na	na	na	na
Main income source from government payments (of one parent income units)	%	na	na	64.4	na	na	na	61.3	na	na	na	na
Mean total weekly earnings of all employees	$	na	346	368	384	411	441	475	494	510	526	533
Mean total weekly earnings of full-time adult employees	$	na	410	436	462	497	538	571	597	616	641	658
Mean weekly ordinary time earnings of full-time non-managerial adult employees	$	na	361	384	406	433	466	495	521	541	558	578
Female/male ratio of mean total full-time adult weekly earnings	no.	na	0.79	0.79	0.79	0.79	0.79	0.79	0.80	0.82	0.80	0.82

INCOME SUPPORT	Units	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
Aged on age pension	%	67.1	64.6	62.7	61.5	60.2	59.2	59.3	61.0	r62.8	64.3	63.0
Age pensioners	'000	1 332	1 325	1 322	1 329	1 334	1 340	1 376	1 446	1 516	1 582	1 579
Unemployment allowees	'000	r559.2	568.7	553.7	478.0	389.8	419.8	676.7	851.8	913.8	878.3	822.6
Disability support pensioners	'000	259.2	273.8	289.1	296.9	307.8	306.7	334.2	378.6	406.6	436.2	464.4
Sole parent pensioners	'000	246.3	250.9	248.9	238.7	239.5	248.9	265.7	278.2	298.4	313.4	324.9
GDP spent on income support	%	6.6	6.3	6.1	5.8	5.4	5.4	r6.3	7.2	7.5	7.7	7.4

EXPENDITURE	Units	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
Consumer price index	no.	67.8	73.5	80.4	86.3	92.6	100.0	105.3	107.3	108.4	110.4	113.9

Reference periods: Data for GDP, real household disposable income, income support and expenditure are for the financial year ending 30 June.

Income — state summary

INCOME DISTRIBUTION	Units	Year	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Gross state product per captita (market price)	$'000	1993–94	24.4	25.1	21.8	21.9	26.9	19.3	26.7	31.0	24.1
Household disposable income per capita	$'000	1993–94	16.4	16.0	14.3	14.8	15.6	13.5	14.7	20.5	15.7
Share of net equivalent income going to top quintile (of net income less housing costs)	%	1990	37.8	37.9	37.5	36.5	37.9	36.8	35.2	37.5	37.7
Share of net equivalent income going to bottom quintile (of net income less housing costs)	%	1990	7.5	7.6	7.5	8.2	7.3	8.0	7.4	7.5	7.6
Gini coefficient (of all income units)	no.	1990	0.42	0.41	0.41	0.41	0.41	0.41	0.37	0.39	0.42
Median gross weekly income of couple with dependants income units	$	1990	809	748	672	702	765	673	921	926	755
Median gross weekly income of one parent income units	$	1990	276	284	281	294	262	264	367	355	279

SOURCES OF INCOME	Units	Year	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Main income source from government payments (of all income units)	%	1990	26.6	24.7	28.0	30.6	27.0	33.7	16.3	16.4	26.7
Main income source from government payments (of couple with dependants income units)	%	1990	7.9	7.2	8.8	10.9	9.2	16.4	*7.0	*4.2	8.4
Main income source from government payments (of one parent income units)	%	1990	61.7	58.8	62.8	60.1	67.1	68.8	*53.2	*41.8	61.3
Mean total weekly earnings of all employees	$	1994	556	535	509	502	500	508	586	594	533
Mean total weekly earnings of full-time adult employees	$	1994	676	659	623	636	648	616	702	742	658
Mean weekly ordinary time earnings of full-time non-managerial adult employees	$	1994	588	578	554	567	575	552	620	638	578
Female/male ratio of mean total full-time adult weekly earnings	no.	1994	0.82	0.82	0.80	0.84	0.77	0.84	0.81	0.81	0.82

INCOME SUPPORT	Units	Year	NSW	Vic.	Qld.	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Aged on age pension	%	1994–95	60.9	62.8	61.0	66.6	60.2	62.4	66.0	46.7	63.0
Age pensioners(a)	'000	1994–95	540.1	404.5	262.3	155.6	126.9	43.1	4.7	11.9	1 578.7
Unemployment allowees	'000	1994–95	260.7	212.3	156.2	74.2	69.2	28.6	11.7	9.7	822.6
Disability support pensioners(a)	'000	1994–95	159.9	107.7	81.1	43.2	40.6	15.4	3.7	4.0	464.4
Sole parent pensioners(a)	'000	1994–95	109.8	71.4	64.3	27.6	32.3	10.2	4.5	4.6	324.9

(a) Components do not add to total because pensions are also paid to people living overseas.

Income — definitions and references

Adult employees — employees aged 21 or over, or those who are paid at the full adult rate.
Reference: Distribution and Compositon of Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia (6306.0)

Age pensioners — people receiving full or partial age pension excluding associated wife's or carer's pension. Men 65 years and over and women 60.5 years and over may be eligible to receive the age pension.
Reference: Department of Social Security *Annual Report*

Aged — men 65 and over and women 60 and over.
Reference: Estimated Resident Population by Sex and Age: States and Territories of Australia (3201.0)

Consumer price index — a measure of change over time in the retail price of a constant basket of goods and services. The choice of goods and services is representative of consumption patterns of employee households in metropolitan areas. Indexed to 1990=100.
Reference: Consumer Price Index (6461.0)

Disability support pensioners
Reference: Department of Social Security *Annual Report*

Employees — all wage and salary earners who received pay for any part of the reference period.
Reference: Distribution and Composition of Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia (6306.0)

Equivalent income — usual income adjusted to allow comparison of economic well-being between income units, using Henderson equivalence scales. These equivalence scales are illustrative and not necessarily endorsed by the ABS.
Reference: Social Indicators 5 (4101.0)

Female/male ratio of mean total full-time adult earnings
Reference: Distribution and Composition of Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia (6306.0)

Full-time employees — employees who usually work 35 hours or more a week, or the agreed hours of a full-time employee.
Reference: Distribution and Composition of Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia (6306.0)

GDP (gross domestic product) — an aggregate measure of the value of economic production in a year.
Reference: Australian National Accounts; National Income, Expenditure and Product (5204.0)

GDP spent on income support — special appropriations under the Social Security Act for income support as a proportion of GDP.
Reference: Australian National Accounts: National Income and Expenditure (5206.0); Department of Social Security *Annual Report*

Gini coefficient — an index for measuring inequality of income. The index, always between 0 and 1, is low for populations with relatively equal income distributions and high for populations with relatively unequal disitributions.
Reference: Survey of Income & Housing Costs and Amenities (6523.0)

Gross income — usual income, before tax or any other deductions are made.
Reference: Survey of Income & Housing Costs and Amenities (6523.0)

Gross state product — a similar measure to GDP but based on state income estimates.
Reference: Australian National Accounts: Concepts, Sources and Methods (5216.0)

Household disposable income — household income (as measured in the Australian National Accounts) less income tax and other direct taxes, fees, fines etc charged by the government, consumer debt interest and transfers overseas.
Reference: Australian Economic Indicators (1350.0)

Income unit — a group of related people who live together and form a single spending unit. Income units can be considered to be families, except that non-dependent children and other adults living in the same household are separate income units.
Reference: Survey of Income & Housing Costs and Amenities (6523.0)

Main income source from government payments — government pensions or allowances form the largest component of usual income.
Reference: Survey of Income & Housing Costs and Amenities (6523.0)

Managerial employees — adult managerial, executive and professional staff, generally defined as those employees who do not receive payment for overtime, and/or who are in charge of a significant number of employees in a separate establishment(s).
Reference: Distribution and Composition of Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia (6306.0)

Mean total weekly earnings
Reference: Distribution and Composition of Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia (6306.0)

Mean weekly ordinary time earnings of full-time non-managerial adults
Reference: Distribution and Composition of Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia (6306.0)

Median weekly income — the level of weekly income at which half the income units have higher incomes and half have lower incomes.
Reference: Survey of Income & Housing Costs and Amenities (6523.0)

Net income — gross income less personal income tax (including the Medicare levy).
Reference: Survey of Income & Housing Costs and Amenities (6523.0)

Ordinary time — employee's agreed hours of work including annual leave, paid sick leave and long service leave.
Reference: Distribution and Composition of Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia (6306.0)

Real household disposable income — household disposable income (as measured in the Australian National Accounts) adjusted for change in prices.
Reference: Australian Economic Indicators (1350.0)

Share of gross cash/net equivalent income going to top/bottom quintile — share of gross cash/net equivalent income received by the 20% of income units with the highest/lowest incomes.
Reference: Survey of Income & Housing Costs and Amenities (6523.0)

Sole parent pensioners — recipients of the sole parent pension. In 1989, the supporting parent benefit and A class widow pensions were combined to form the sole parent pension. Figures prior to 1989 include these two pensions.
Reference: Department of Social Security *Annual Reports*

Unemployment allowees — the number of recipients of unemployment benefit prior to 1991 and of Job Search allowance, Newstart allowance and Youth Training allowance since then.
Reference: Department of Social Security *Annual Reports*

Household income redistribution

INCOME DISTRIBUTION

In 1993–94 the final income of households in the lowest income quintile was 16 times greater than their private income. The final income of households in the highest quintile was 22% lower than their private income.

Government improves economic equity in society by redistributing the nation's income. The government raises revenue through the taxation system which is then spent for the benefit of households. Some households pay more tax than they receive in benefits while others pay less tax and receive more benefits. These differences in amounts paid and received change the distribution of income.

Some taxes and benefits have a more direct impact on households than others. For example, personal taxes are paid to government by household members while company taxes are not; family payments are received by households containing children but benefits from spending on defence are shared by all. The data presented in this review refer only to taxes and benefits which could be directly associated with different household types. The estimates do not account for all government revenue and expenditure.

The effect on high and low income households

In 1993–94 average weekly private income was $13 for households in the lowest gross income quintile and $1,586 for households in the highest quintile. (The amount for households in the lowest quintile is affected by people reporting negative income due to business losses.) When taxes were subtracted

Taxes and benefits

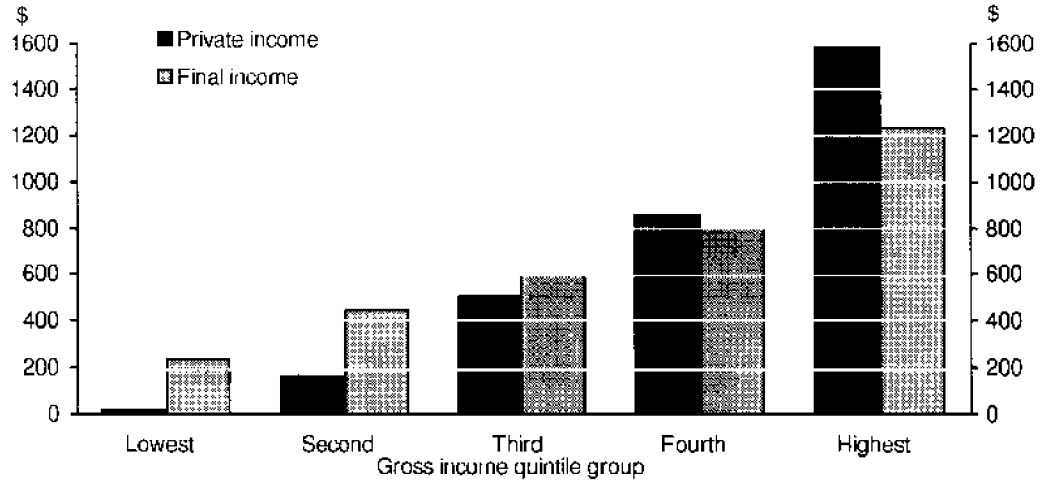
The data presented in this review are derived from the 1993–94 Household Expenditure Survey (HES). *Total taxes* are the sum of *direct tax* (personal income tax) and *indirect tax*. *Indirect tax* is the sum of sales taxes, payroll taxes, excise and import duties which are paid indirectly by households when goods or services are purchased.

Total benefits are the sum of direct and indirect benefits. *Direct benefits* are regular cash payments received from the government, eg age pensions and unemployment allowances. *Indirect benefits* are non-cash benefits received by households from government funded services in the area of social security and welfare, housing, health and education. Indirect benefits were given a value equivalent to the cost to government of providing them. The value was then added to the income of households who received them.

Private income is household income from non-government sources, such as wages and salaries, interest, rent, dividends, profits, investments and superannuation. *Gross income* equals private income plus direct benefits. *Final income* equals gross income plus indirect benefits minus direct and indirect taxes.

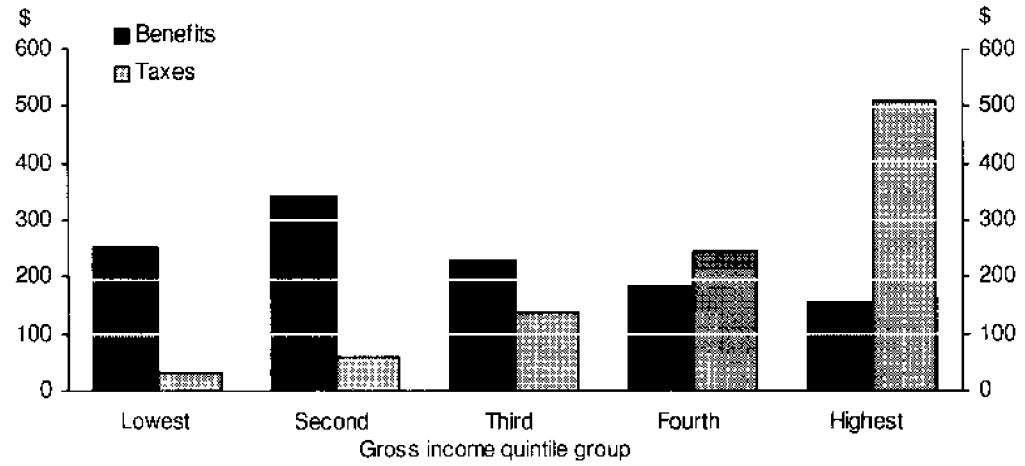
Income quintiles are 20% groupings of the population when income units are ranked in ascending order according to each income unit's gross income.

Average weekly value of private and final income, 1993–94



Source: *Household Expenditure Survey, Australia: the Effects of Government Benefits and Taxes on Household Income* (6537.0)

Average weekly value of taxes paid and benefits received, 1993–94



Source: *Household Expenditure Survey, Australia: the Effects of Government Benefits and Taxes on Household Income* (6537.0)

and benefits added, this difference was markedly reduced. Final income of the lowest quintile was $233 per week and final income of the highest quintile was $1,231 per week. The difference between the final incomes of the two quintiles, $998, was much less than the difference between their private incomes, $1,573.

The value of taxes paid increased as income increased and the proportions of direct and indirect tax also changed. In 1993–94 the lowest income quintile paid 7% of their total tax in direct tax while the highest quintile paid 81%.

The receipt of benefits did not consistently increase as income decreased. Households in the lowest income quintile did not receive the greatest value from benefits. This was received by households in the second quintile. This is because income is not the only influence on the receipt of benefits. The size and composition of households is also influential. Households in the second quintile had a higher average number of people receiving government cash benefits and a higher average number of children than households in the lowest quintile.

Household composition

In 1993–94 one parent families received the lowest private income ($216) and consequently paid the lowest taxes ($71). However, they received the highest total benefits ($411) due to the sole parent pension, the family payment and a range of indirect benefits such as education, health and housing. The value of education and health benefits consumed by one parent families was comparable to married couples with dependants.

In terms of final income, one parent families had a weekly average of $557 per week which was shared between an average of 2.8 people. The weekly average of $824 for two parent families was shared between 4.2 people.

Lone person households had the lowest level of indirect benefits ($68), due mainly to their low receipt of education and health services. However, they paid a relatively low level of total taxes. The high proportion of older people among people living alone (see *People who live alone* pp. 33–35) is reflected in the relatively high average value of direct benefits received from the age pension ($53). Lone person households had an average weekly final income of $326 compared to $601 for couple only households.

Average net benefits over the life-cycle

The extent to which households pay tax and benefit from government expenditure varies over the life-cycle. In the early stages of the adult life-cycle, when people are young and single, or living as a couple without children, the payment of taxes considerably outweighs benefits received. The households receive little in benefits because they are small, members are usually employed and they are less likely to use educational and health services. Young couples without children often have both partners employed and thus pay more tax than young people living alone. For both these groups, final income is lower than private income.

Average weekly value of the components of final income for selected household composition, 1993–94

Final income components	Couple with dependants only	One parent with dependants only	Couple only	Lone person
	$	$	$	$
Private income	807	216	598	260
Total taxes	258	71	185	92
Total benefits	*276*	*411*	*188*	*158*
Direct benefits	69	190	91	91
Age pension	0	* *	46	53
Disability support pension	4	4	11	10
Veteran's Affairs pension	1	* *	21	14
Unemployment allowance	18	2	7	9
Sole parent pension	* *	104	. .	. .
Family payment	39	68	. .	. .
Indirect benefits	207	221	97	68
Education	124	128	7	4
Health	66	49	65	40
Housing	3	20	2	5
Social security/welfare	14	24	22	19
Net benefits	18	340	2	66
Final income	**824**	**557**	**601**	**326**

Source: *Household Expenditure Survey, Australia: the Effects of Government Benefits and Taxes on Household Income* (6537.0)

Once a couple have children, one parent (usually the mother) may choose to leave the paid labour force, thus reducing the family's private income and hence the direct tax paid. The household receives greater benefits in the form of family payments and, for those with children aged 5 or over, in indirect education benefits. Final income for couples with

Average weekly value of the components of final income for selected life-cycle groups, 1993–94

Life-cycle groups	Private income	Direct taxes	Indirect taxes	Direct benefits	Indirect benefits	Final income
	$	$	$	$	$	$
Single person under 35	443	102	40	33	36	370
Couple only, reference person under 35	951	203	74	13	53	741
Couple with oldest child under 5	736	170	67	55	94	648
Couple with oldest child 5–14	765	174	74	78	228	823
Couple with oldest child 15–20	958	222	76	64	269	993
Couple with non-dependent children only	1 012	208	93	97	120	929
Lone parent with dependants	216	33	38	190	222	557
Couple only, reference person over 65	186	31	38	204	171	493
Single person over 65	65	14	15	148	107	290

Source: *Household Expenditure Survey, Australia: the Effects of Government Benefits and Taxes on Household Income* (6537.0)

dependent children aged 5 and over is greater than private income.

Lone parents with dependants receive a high level of direct and indirect benefits, including the sole parent pension and education benefits. They have relatively low incomes and spend less so they pay less tax. Their final incomes are twice their private incomes.

When one partner in a couple or a person living alone is aged 65 or over, their private incomes are low. They often receive direct government benefits, mainly the age pension, and relatively high indirect benefits, mainly health benefits. Their final incomes are well over twice their private incomes.

Income of Indigenous people

INCOME DISTRIBUTION

In 1994, 59% of Indigenous people received a gross annual income less than $12,000.

Traditional Indigenous culture places great importance on the sharing of resources among kin-groups. Therefore, the assumption that income is shared mainly among the family unit, as is common in non-Indigenous families, may not be true for Indigenous people. This means that an individual or household may receive a greater or lesser effective income than declared because they are supported by, or support, other members of their kin-group.

Average personal income

Overall, 88% of Indigenous people aged 15 and over reported receiving some personal income in 1994. 11% stated they received no personal income and 2% did not state their income. Among Indigenous people who received income, the average gross annual personal income was $15,400 for men and $12,700 for women. In general, men had greater incomes than women and Indigenous people living in capital cities had greater incomes than those living in rural areas. The highest average income was received by Indigenous men who lived in capital cities and worked full-time, $28,500. The lowest average income was received by Indigenous men who lived in rural areas and who were not in the labour force, $7,600.

The overall difference between the incomes of Indigenous people in capital cities and rural

Income and location

Data in this review refer to Indigenous people aged 15 and over.

Personal income is the gross annual income a person reported receiving at the time of interview from wages and salaries and from government payments. It does not include income from investments or other sources.

CDEP income comes from community development employment projects. The projects operate through grants from the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission (ATSIC) to Indigenous community organisations to enable individuals to undertake community managed activities in return for wages.

Government payments include allowances, pensions, family payments, rent assistance, Abstudy and other government payments.

Main source of income is the single source from which the most income was received.

Capital city comprises all state and territory capital city statistical divisions.

Other urban comprises all centres with a total population of 1,000 and over, excluding capital cities.

Rural comprises rural areas and towns with a total population of less than 1,000 people. Most remote Indigenous communities are included in this category.

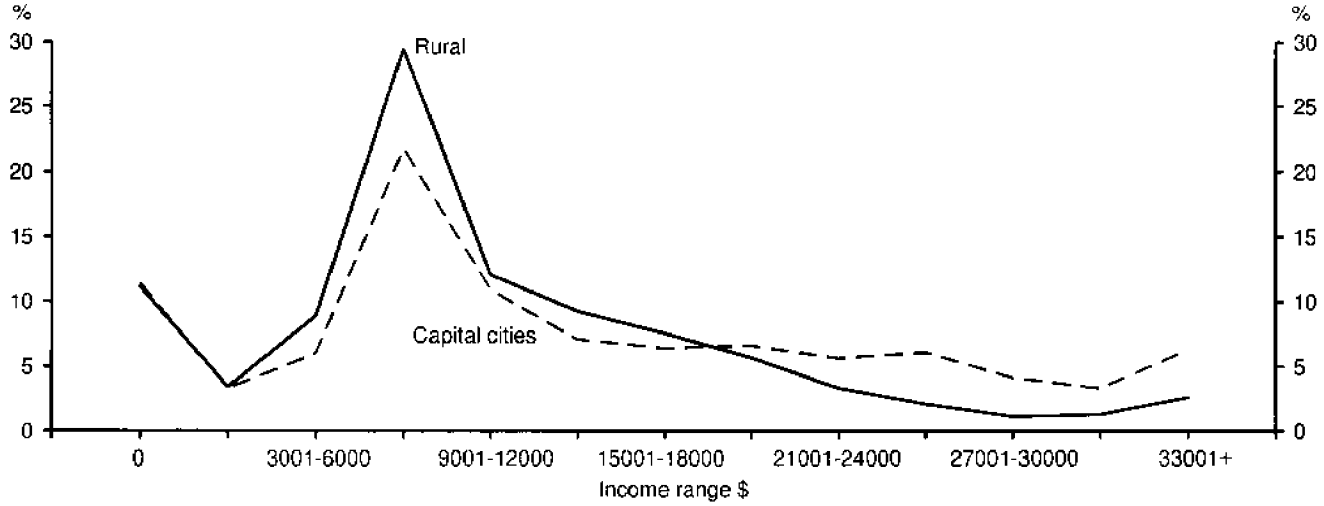
Average gross annual personal income of Indigenous people(a), 1994

	Capital city		Other urban		Rural		Total	
Labour force status	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
	$	$	$	$	$	$	$	$
Employed (non-CDEP)	*27 629*	*21 701*	*26 739*	*21 022*	*23 978*	*20 676*	*26 482*	*21 216*
Employed full-time	28 451	26 945	28 373	25 869	25 509	24 435	27 814	26 088
Employed part-time	20 377	14 073	16 243	15 684	17 401	17 729	17 766	15 642
Employed (CDEP)	*14 589*	* *	*11 454*	*13 884*	*12 289*	*13 406*	*12 194*	*13 765*
Employed full-time	16 726*	* *	13 255	15 098*	17 611	20 569*	16 338	18 969
Employed part-time	* *	* *	10 857	13 738	10 744	12 395	10 784	12 839
Unemployed	8 568	9 523	8 998	9 478	9 174	9 150	8 934	9 432
Not in the labour force	8 187	10 389	8 534	10 246	7 639	8 966	8 146	9 854
Total	**16 469**	**14 106**	**15 189**	**12 614**	**13 298**	**11 540**	**15 448**	**12 702**

(a) People who stated their income and had an income greater than zero.

Source: *National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Survey, 1994* (unpublished data)

Income distribution of Indigenous people, 1994



Source: *National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Survey, 1994* (unpublished data)

areas is related to the prevalence of part-time employment under the Community Development Employment Projects (CDEP) in rural areas. CDEP employment is particularly important in rural areas (see *Work and Indigenous people* pp. 101–104). It was the main source of income for 53% of Indigenous people in rural areas who had income from employment. However, Indigenous people employed under this program earned less than those in non-CDEP employment.

Distribution of personal income

The majority of Indigenous people reported low incomes. In rural areas 65% of Indigenous people had gross annual incomes of $12,000 or less (including those with zero income). 4% had incomes greater than $30,000. In capital cities the spread of income was slightly greater with 53% of Indigenous people having incomes of $12,000 or less and 10% having an income greater than $30,000.

22% of Indigenous people in capital cities and 29% of those in rural areas had incomes that fell in the range $6,001–$9,000, a level that corresponds to the value of government payments in 1994 (for example, the single independent unemployment allowance in 1994 was $294 a fortnight or about $7,600 per year). Some Indigenous people receiving income from part-time CDEP employment would also fall into this income range although their average income was $11,500.

Main source of personal income of Indigenous people, 1994

	Capital city		Other urban		Rural		Total	
Main source of income	**Men**	**Women**	**Men**	**Women**	**Men**	**Women**	**Men**	**Women**
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Earned income (non-CDEP)	43.6	27.1	29.5	17.4	19.9	12.0	30.1	18.5
Earned income (CDEP)	2.4*	**	8.4	3.4	25.5	10.8	12.5	4.7
Government payments	41.4	59.5	52.0	66.5	40.1	64.8	45.3	64.1
No income	11.6	11.2	8.5	11.2	11.6	10.7	10.3	11.0
Not stated	0.9*	1.9	1.6	1.5	2.9	1.8	1.9	1.7
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total	**23.5**	**25.5**	**35.9**	**39.8**	**29.2**	**27.6**	**88.5**	**92.9**

Source: National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Survey, 1994 (unpublished data)

Source of personal income

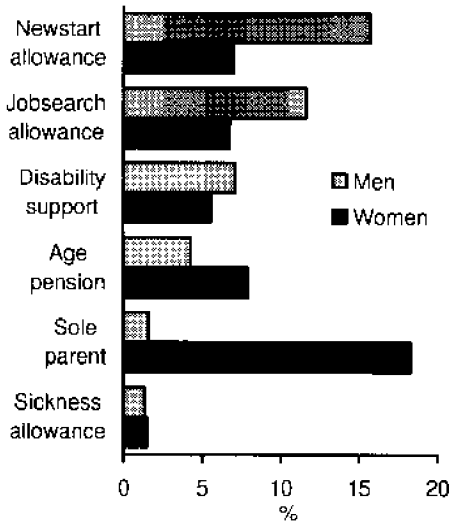
Overall, government payments were the main source of income for 55% of Indigenous people. 24% of Indigenous people had non-CDEP earned income as their main source of income with a further 9% having CDEP earnings as their main source of income. 12% either had no income or did not state their income.

Across the broad locations the main differences were in the proportions receiving government payments and earned income. Government payments were the main source of income for 51% of Indigenous people in capital cities, 52% in rural areas and 60% in other urban areas. In all three broad locations women were more likely than men to have had government payments as their main source of income. Conversely, men were more likely than women to have earned income as their main source of income. For example, in rural areas government payments were the main source of income for 40% of men and 65% of women, and earned income was the main source for 45% of men and 23% of women.

The main government payments

42% of Indigenous men and 47% of Indigenous women received payments from the main government pensions and allowances (newstart, jobsearch and sickness allowances, and the age, disability and sole parent pensions). 27% of Indigenous men were receiving newstart or jobsearch allowance. Among Indigenous women, 18% were receiving the sole parent pension.

Proportion of Indigenous men and women receiving main government payments, 1994



Source: *National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Survey, 1994: Detailed findings* (4190.0)

Household income

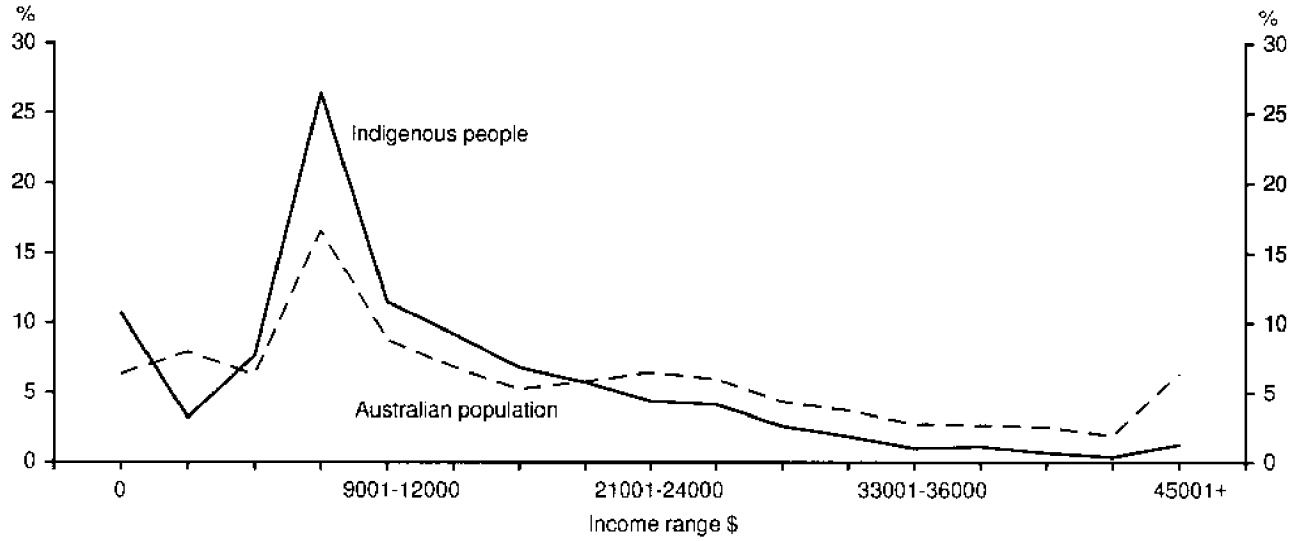
Household income is derived by adding the personal gross annual income of all individuals aged 15 and over in the household. If people who usually lived in the household were absent then the household income was classified as not stated. Overall, 18% of households were classified as income not stated. The highest level of household income not stated occurred in rural areas,

Income of Indigenous households, 1994

Household gross income	Capital city	Other urban	Rural	Total
	%	%	%	%
$12,000 or less (includes zero)	11.7	10.3	10.6	10.8
$12,001–16,000	7.7	10.3	7.3	8.7
$16,001–20,000	6.6	8.5	8.5	7.9
$20,001–24,000	8.3	8.1	6.0	7.7
$24,001–28,000	5.9	7.3	6.9	6.8
$28,001–32,000	6.8	7.7	6.3	7.0
$32,001–36,000	4.9	5.5	5.9	5.4
$36,001–40,000	7.2	4.4	4.2	5.3
Greater than $40,000	24.7	20.4	21.6	22.1
Household income not stated	16.3	17.4	22.6	18.3
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**

Source: National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Survey, 1994 (unpublished data)

Income distribution of the Indigenous population, 1994 and the total population, 1993–94



Source: *National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Survey 1994: Detailed findings* (4190.0); *Household Expenditure Survey, 1993–94* (unpublished data)

23% compared to 16% in capital cities. This is related to differences in average household size and differences in people's mobility in the different areas. The larger the household the more likely it was that someone was absent. For example, 32% of households with 6 or more people were classified as income not stated. This means that income from larger households was under-represented. This influences the pattern of household income distribution.

Overall, 20% of households had gross annual incomes less than $16,000 and 22% had gross incomes over $40,000. The patterns of gross household income were similar across the broad locations. This pattern was different from that for personal income which is highest in capital cities and lowest in rural areas. The difference is related to the larger household sizes in rural areas (see *Housing conditions of Indigenous people* pp. 142–145).

Selected comparisons of gross annual income between the Indigenous population and the total population

Indicator	1994 Indigenous population	1993–94 total population
	%	%
Proportion of people with an annual income less than $12,000	59.4	45.8
Proportion of people with an annual income greater than $25,000	11.3	28.1
Proportion of households with an annual income less than $16,000	19.6	25.3
Proportion of households with an annual income greater than $40,000	22.1	38.7
	$	$
Average personal annual income of people who received income	14 046	19 958
Average income of full-time employed person (Indigenous figure excludes CDEP income)	27295	31 280
Average income of people whose main income source was government payments	9 576	8 310

Source: *National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Survey 1994* (unpublished data); Household Expenditure Survey *1993–94* (unpublished data)

Income comparison

In general, Indigenous people have less income than the total population. A greater proportion of Indigenous people than of the total population had incomes less than $12,000 (59% compared to 46%). Conversely, a greater proportion of the total population had incomes over $25,000 (28% compared to 11% for Indigenous people). The overall average income for Indigenous people was $14,000, 30% less than the average of $20,000 for the total population. The average income for Indigenous people who were in full-time non-CDEP employment was $27,300, 13% less than the average income of all full-time employed people.

There was a higher percentage of households with incomes below $16,000 in the total population than among Indigenous households, 25% compared to 20%. However, this is probably related to the larger average size of Indigenous households (see *Housing conditions of Indigenous people* pp. 142–145) and the younger age structure of the Indigenous population.

Special employee benefits

SOURCES OF INCOME

As well as standard benefits received in accordance with award conditions, 40% of employees received one or more special benefits as part of their remuneration in 1994.

In addition to wages, salaries and standard award benefits, such as holidays, sick leave and superannuation, some employees receive special benefits from employers as part of their remuneration. These special benefits can range from discounts on goods or services to provision of housing or transport. The special benefits offered are often directly related to the type of job in which the employee works.

The introduction of the Fringe Benefits Tax (FBT) in 1986 led to a decline in the receipt of most types of employee benefits. However, the importance of these benefits as an alternative to cash income is still significant. In 1994–95, $2.7 billion was collected in FBT by the Australian Taxation Office. This is equivalent to $5.7 billion paid to employees in special benefits[1]. All benefits included in this review, apart from union dues/professional association membership fees and shares in the employer's business, are subject to the FBT. However, not all benefits subject to FBT are included in this review.

In 1994 the most common specific special benefit received by employees was transport (15% of employees) followed by telephone (8%) and shares (4%).

Who receives benefits?

In 1994, managers and administrators were most likely to receive one or more special benefits (74%) followed by salespersons and personal service workers (52%). Managers and administrators were also the most likely to receive each type of special benefit except for union dues/professional association fees and study leave.

In 1994, men were generally more likely to receive a special benefit than women. There were two specific benefit categories that did not follow that pattern. Low interest finance and study leave had equal proportions of male and female employees receiving them (both 3%). This overall bias in favour of men

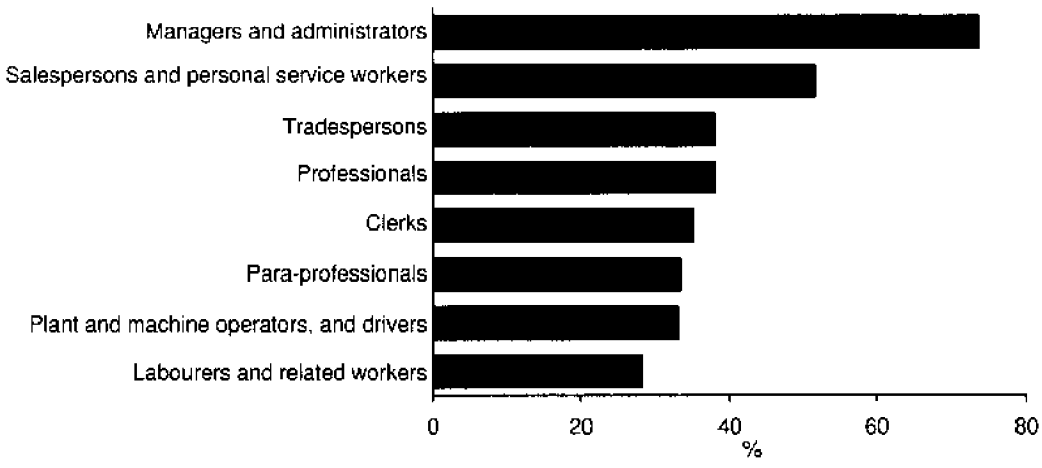
Employee benefits in main job

Special benefits comprise the categories used in the tables. However, the value or scale of these special benefits was not collected. Consequently employees recorded as receiving a particular type of benefit may have received the benefit outright or have received some discount or subsidisation. Employees may have received more than one type of special benefit.

An employee's special benefit did not necessarily come directly from their current employer. They may have received it as a result of their employment in a particular occupation or industry, eg concession air fare granted by an airline to a travel agency employee.

Standard benefits received in accordance with award provisions are not included in this review. They include superannuation, leave entitlements, over award payments, bonuses, or payments instead of leave.

Proportion of employees receiving one or more special benefits, 1994



Source: *Employment Benefits, Australia* (6334.0.40.001)

is largely accounted for by the higher proportion of females working part-time (see Australian Social Trends 1994 pp. 103–108 *Trends in part-time work*) and the predominance of men in managerial and administrative positions.

Full-time workers were more likely to receive special benefits than part-time workers. The general category of other goods or services, which includes retail discounts, was the only exception. This is because the retail trade is the main industry which provides this benefit and there is a relatively high proportion of part-time workers employed in retail trade.

Similarly, proportionally fewer casual than permanent employees received special benefits. However, 17% of casual workers received an other goods or services benefit. This is also because of the high proportion of casual workers employed in the retail trade industry.

Private sector employees were more likely to receive benefits than public sector employees. The most noticeable differences in 1994 were in transport benefits (16% in the private sector and 10% in the public sector). Public sector employees were slightly more likely to receive holiday expenses (5%) and low interest finance (3%) than private sector employees (3% and 2% respectively). In 1994 employees in public enterprises such as Qantas, Telstra and the Commonwealth Bank were included in the public sector.

There is a close relationship between the type of special benefit received and the industry of the employee. 47% of employees in the retail trade industry received other goods or services benefits (retail discounts are a major component of this general category). Telephone benefits were most likely to be received by communication industry employees (39%) and low interest finance by employees in the finance and insurance industry (39%). Holiday expenses were most likely to be received by transport and storage workers (27%).

Not all benefits received related directly to the industry of the employee. Medical benefits were only received by 2% of health and

Selected characteristics of employees receiving special benefits, 1994

Type of special benefit	Men	Women	Employed full-time	Employed part-time	Permanent employees	Casual employees	Private sector	Public sector	Total
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Transport	21.4	6.2	17.7	4.8	16.5	8.4	16.5	9.5	14.7
Telephone	11.2	3.6	9.3	3.2	8.3	6.4	8.0	7.4	7.9
Shares/rights/options	4.6	3.0	4.5	1.8	4.6	1.6	4.9	0.9	3.9
Holiday expenses	3.9	2.4	4.0	0.8	4.0	0.6	2.6	5.0	3.2
Study leave	3.3	3.2	3.4	2.7	3.5	2.2	2.7	4.7	3.2
Medical	3.8	2.4	3.8	1.2	3.8	1.1	3.5	2.5	3.2
Housing	4.1	1.5	3.5	1.2	3.0	2.8	3.2	2.2	2.9
Union dues/professional associations	3.7	1.4	3.2	0.7	2.9	1.7	3.0	1.5	2.6
Low-interest finance	2.6	2.6	3.1	0.9	3.3	0.2*	2.4	3.2	2.6
Electricity/gas/oil	2.6	1.2	2.2	1.1	1.7	3.0	2.4	0.8	2.0
Club fees	2.2	1.0	2.1	0.4	1.9	0.9	1.9	1.0	1.7
Entertainment allowance	2.3	0.5	1.9	0.3*	1.8	0.3	1.8	0.8	1.5
Child care/education expenses	0.5	0.3	0.5	0.2*	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.2*	0.4
Other goods or services	15.9	18.6	16.5	18.8	17.1	17.0	20.7	6.3	17.1
Total receiving one or more special benefit	**45.5**	**34.0**	**43.9**	**28.9**	**43.2**	**30.3**	**44.0**	**29.8**	**40.4**
	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total employees	**3 549.4**	**2 799.1**	**4 872.4**	**1 476.1**	**4 968.2**	**1 380.3**	**4 735.5**	**1 613.0**	**6 348.5**

Source: *Employment Benefits, Australia* (6334.0.40.001)

Special benefits received by full-time(a) employees

Type of benefit	1984	1994	Change
	%	%	% points
Transport(b)	9.9	17.7	7.8
Shares/rights/options	1.8	4.5	2.7
Study leave	2.0	3.4	1.4
Union dues/professional associations	2.9	3.2	0.3
Childcare/education expenses	0.4	0.5	0.1
Club fees	2.1	2.1	0.0
Low interest finance	3.2	3.1	-0.1
Medical	4.1	3.8	-0.3
Holiday expenses	4.4	4.0	-0.4
Electricity/gas/oil	2.7	2.2	-0.5
Telephone	10.3	9.3	-1.0
Housing	4.7	3.5	-1.2
Entertainment allowance	5.9	1.9	-4.0
Other goods/services	21.8	16.5	-5.3
	'000	'000	'000
Total full-time employees	**4 443.4**	**4 872.4**	**429.0**

(a) Because data for 1994 exclude school students who were also employed while data for 1984 include school students in employee totals, the comparison has been made using full-time employees only.

(b) Transport benefits are not directly comparable since, between the two surveys, the definition of a transport benefit was widened to include the payment or subsidisation of travel to and from work.

Source: *Employment Benefits, Australia* (6334.0 and 6334.0.40.001)

community services workers. This may reflect the large public sector component of this industry and access of the general population to services provided under Medicare.

Employees with high incomes generally received more special benefits. In 1994, 29% of employees earning less than $160 per week received benefits. This compares to 46% of those employees earning between $640 and $800 per week and 66% of those earning $960 or more per week.

The impact of the Fringe Benefits Tax

Employers generally aim to minimise their own and their employees' tax burdens. Prior to 1986 there was an incentive to pay employees not only in wages and salaries but also in special benefits. This effectively lowered an employer's wages and salaries bill, which is subject to payroll tax and workers' compensation premiums, and thus eased their tax burden. It also helped employees in that receiving benefits instead of income lowered their annual earnings, thus reducing their personal income tax.

The Fringe Benefits Tax (FBT) was introduced to eliminate what was perceived as tax evasion [2]. The FBT led employers to favour replacing special benefits with increases in wages or salaries[3]. Otherwise employers could use special benefits not subject to FBT, eg shares, union dues or professional association fees. An employee receiving higher pay rather than special benefits will pay more tax. This may disadvantage an employer looking for highly skilled staff so some employers may still use special benefits to attract and keep highly valued staff[3].

Data from the Employment Benefits Survey for 1984 and 1994 demonstrate the shift away from most special benefits among full-time employees. However, there was an increase in the proportion of full-time employees receiving shares (3 percentage points) and study leave benefits (1 percentage point). Although the increase in the proportion of employees receiving a transport benefit was large (8 percentage points), there was a definitional change which makes the data not directly comparable.

Endnotes

1 Commissioner of Taxation (1995) *Annual Report 1994–95*.

2 Raskall, P. (1994) *Perks of the Job: The Distribution of Non-cash Wage Income in Australia in the 1980s* Centre for Applied Economic Research, Social Policy Research Centre, University of NSW.

3 Norman, N. (1988) *F.B.T. and the way we pay* Information paper No. IP25, Committee for Economic Development of Australia.

State differences in household expenditure

EXPENDITURE

In 1993–94 households in New South Wales had the highest weekly expenditure on commodities and services ($624) while households in Tasmania had the lowest ($535).

Household income is one of the main factors affecting household expenditure. However, household income and expenditure are also related to the geographic and demographic characteristics of households. For example, capital city households typically have higher income and expenditure levels than rural households. Household income and expenditure are also influenced by such factors as the household size, the age of the household members and their sources of income.

State expenditure patterns

In 1993–94 Australian households spent an average of $602 per week on commodities and services. For all states the item accounting for the largest proportion of household expenditure was food and non-alcoholic beverages (18%). This was followed by transport (16%), housing costs (14%) and recreation (13%).

Household expenditure

The 1993–94 Household Expenditure Survey (HES) collected data on the expenditure patterns of Australian households. Information was collected on a household, rather than individual basis as many items of expenditure such as food, accommodation, household goods and appliances, fuel and power are shared by household members. In the HES a *household* is defined as a group of people who usually reside and eat together.

To calculate *average weekly expenditure*, expenditure was divided by the number of weeks in the reporting period over which it was collected. Estimates therefore do not refer to a given week.

Levels of household expenditure varied considerably across states. In 1993–94 New South Wales had the highest average weekly household expenditure ($624) while Tasmania had the lowest ($535). Households

Household expenditure on commodities and services, 1993–94

Commodity or service	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	Australia(a)
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Food and non-alcoholic beverages	18.9	18.5	17.9	18.0	18.1	19.1	18.4
Transport	15.1	15.6	16.6	15.2	15.4	14.3	15.5
Current housing costs	15.3	13.8	14.1	12.8	13.1	11.8	14.2
Recreation	12.5	13.4	13.0	13.9	13.1	14.6	13.2
Miscellaneous commodities and services	7.2	7.7	8.1	8.4	7.8	7.4	7.6
Household furnishings and equipment	6.8	5.7	6.4	6.8	8.1	6.5	6.6
Clothing and footwear	5.7	6.2	5.0	5.3	5.3	5.6	5.6
Household services and operation	5.3	5.1	5.5	4.9	5.4	5.5	5.2
Medical care and health expenses	4.6	4.4	4.5	5.2	4.4	4.6	4.5
Alcoholic beverages	2.9	2.7	3.1	3.0	3.1	2.9	2.9
Fuel and power	2.5	3.5	2.1	2.9	2.8	4.2	2.8
Personal care	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.0	1.9	1.8	1.9
Tobacco	1.5	1.4	1.5	1.7	1.6	1.9	1.5
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	$	$	$	$	$	$	$
Average weekly expenditure	624	602	576	551	596	535	602
Average weekly income	754	712	704	681	681	621	723

(a) Includes the Northern Territory and the Australian Capital Territory.

Source: *1993–94 Household Expenditure Survey, Australia: States and Territories* (6533.0)

in New South Wales also had the highest average weekly income ($754) while households in Tasmania had the lowest ($621).

As well as differences in income, differences in the geographic and demographic characteristics of households help to explain the differences in household expenditure. For example, Tasmania had the lowest proportion of households living in the metropolitan area (41%), the lowest proportion of household income from employee income (67%), the second lowest average number of people per household (2.5), and the highest proportion of household income from government pensions and allowances (17%).

Patterns of household expenditure differed between states. For example, in 1993–94 households in New South Wales had the highest average weekly expenditure on housing costs, $95 (15% of total expenditure) compared to households in Tasmania, $63 (12% of total expenditure). This is mainly due to the high proportion of Tasmanian households who were home owners, 47% compared to 42% in New South Wales. Home owners generally have lower housing costs than renters or purchasers (see *Home ownership* pp. 137–141). In contrast, households in Tasmania had the highest proportion of average weekly household expenditure on recreation (15%) while those in New South Wales had the lowest proportion (13%).

Households in Queensland had the highest proportion of average weekly expenditure on transport (17%) while households in Tasmania had the lowest (14%). Households in Tasmania had the highest proportion of average weekly expenditure on fuel and power (4%), largely on cooking and heating. In contrast, because of the generally warmer climate, households in Queensland had the lowest proportion of average weekly expenditure on fuel and power (2%).

Regional differences

Household expenditure varies across geographic areas within states. Overall, capital city households had higher average weekly household expenditure than households in other urban areas, which in turn had higher average weekly household expenditure than households in rural areas. In 1993–94 average weekly expenditure on commodities and services for capital city households was $634 compared to the $549 spent by households in other urban areas and the $531 spent by households in rural areas. Exceptions to this pattern were Victorian, South Australian and Tasmanian households where average weekly expenditure was higher in rural areas than in other urban areas.

In 1993–94, the average weekly household expenditure on housing in capital city areas was $96, almost twice as much as in rural areas ($49). These housing costs represented 15% of total household expenditure on commodities and services for capital city households and 9% of total household expenditure for rural households. The differences are partly due to differences in housing tenure and income between capital city and rural households.

Average weekly household expenditure, 1993–94

State	Capital cities	Other urban areas	Rural areas	Total
	$	$	$	$
New South Wales	669	562	493	624
Victoria	634	507	555	602
Queensland	595	559	558	576
South Australia	577	440	529	551
Western Australia	608	590	475	596
Tasmania	555	488	572	535
Northern Territory(a)	685	—	—	—
Australian Capital Territory(a)	749	—	—	—
Australia	**634**	**549**	**531**	**602**

(a) Data only available for capital city areas.

Source: *1993–94 Household Expenditure Survey, Australia: States and Territories* (6533.0)

Household expenditure on commodities and services, 1993–94

Commodity or service	Sydney	Melbourne	Brisbane	Adelaide	Perth	Hobart	Darwin	Canberra	All capitals
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Food and non-alcoholic beverages	18.8	18.2	18.0	17.6	18.0	18.7	18.5	16.9	18.3
Transport	14.4	15.1	16.6	14.8	15.5	13.7	13.6	17.0	15.1
Current housing costs	16.6	14.7	14.6	13.0	14.1	13.1	17.0	15.0	15.1
Recreation	12.9	13.6	13.0	14.4	12.6	13.9	14.3	13.7	13.2
Miscellaneous commodities and services	7.2	7.9	8.6	8.7	7.6	7.0	7.5	8.0	7.8
Household furnishings and equipment	6.6	5.6	5.6	6.6	7.8	7.0	5.9	6.2	6.3
Clothing and footwear	5.8	6.4	5.4	5.5	5.5	5.7	3.6	5.9	5.8
Household services and operation	5.1	4.9	5.4	4.9	5.2	5.2	6.1	5.3	5.1
Medical care and health expenses	4.5	4.4	4.3	5.2	4.2	5.0	3.6	3.8	4.5
Fuel and power	2.3	3.4	2.0	2.9	2.8	4.1	2.5	2.7	2.7
Alcoholic beverages	2.6	2.6	2.9	2.7	3.0	2.9	3.8	2.5	2.7
Personal care	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.0	1.8	1.5	1.9	1.9
Tobacco	1.4	1.3	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.8	2.2	1.1	1.5
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	$	$	$	$	$	$	$	$	$
Average weekly expenditure	669	634	595	577	608	555	685	749	634
Average weekly income	834	766	765	721	708	687	864	1 037	783

Source: *1993–94 Household Expenditure Survey, Australia: States and Territories* (6533.0)

Capital city expenditure patterns

In 1993–94 average weekly household expenditure was highest in Canberra and Darwin, $749 and $685 respectively, followed by Sydney ($669) and Melbourne ($634). Hobart ($555) and Adelaide ($577) had the lowest average weekly household expenditures. These average weekly expenditures are related to the average weekly incomes of capital city households. For example, Canberra ($1,037) and Darwin ($864) had the highest average weekly household incomes and Hobart ($687) had the lowest.

The difference in household expenditure patterns between capital cities is bigger than the difference in household expenditure patterns between states. This is because the capital cities generally have very different demographic characteristics from each other (see *Capital city growth and development* pp. 23–27). Darwin (85%) and Canberra (79%) had the highest proportions of people receiving employee income, the lowest proportions receiving income from government pensions and allowances (8% and 6% respectively), and the lowest proportions of people aged 65 and over. Because of its older age structure, Hobart's population had the highest proportion of people with income from government pensions and allowances.

There was considerable variation in housing costs between capital cities. In 1993–94 households in Darwin and Canberra had the highest average weekly housing costs ($116 and $112 respectively). Hobart ($73) and Adelaide ($75) had the lowest. The differences in housing costs between capital cities were also evident when expressed as a proportion of total household expenditure. In 1993–94 the lowest were Adelaide and Hobart (13%) and the highest were Darwin and Sydney (17%). As well as differences in housing prices and rents, differences between capital cities in expenditure on housing costs reflect different levels of income and types of dwelling tenure.

Households in Canberra had the highest proportion of average weekly expenditure on transport (17%) and Hobart and Darwin had the lowest (14%). However, households in Canberra had the lowest proportion of average weekly expenditure on food (17%) and Sydney had the highest (19%).

Housing

Housing — national summary

HOUSING STOCK	Units	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
Occupied private dwellings	'000	na	5 629	na	na	na	na	6 173	6 319	6 483	6 635	6 768
Houses (of dwellings)	%	na	r80.2	na	r80.0	na	80.7	na	78.2	na	79.4	na
Flats and apartments (of dwellings)	%	na	r9.6	na	r8.9	na	11.5	na	na	na	12.5	na
Owned (of dwellings)	%	na	r38.6	na	r42.9	na	42.4	na	41.6	na	41.8	na
Being purchased (of dwellings)	%	na	r32.0	na	r29.1	na	29.2	na	27.6	na	28.3	na
Public rental (of dwellings)	%	na	r5.4	na	r5.4	na	5.8	na	5.6	na	6.2	na
Size of new private sector houses	m^2	170	178	182	186	r190	189	188	187	189	192	197
Size of new public sector houses	m^2	104	108	111	114	114	110	121	122	130	141	141
Private sector dwellings completed	'000	129.1	126.5	106.2	107.7	139.4	147.5	122.9	123.0	r145.2	157.3	162.4
Public sector dwellings completed	'000	13.3	13.9	13.6	10.7	11.0	12.5	11.5	9.7	11.1	9.9	7.8

HOUSING COSTS	Units	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
Housing interest rate	%	11.6	13.8	15.5	14.2	15.3	16.9	15.1	11.9	9.9	8.9	10.0
Affordability index	no.	na	141.1	135.1	135.1	110.1	100.9	111.7	133.9	152.1	162.8	140.9
Average weekly earnings index	no.	72.2	76.7	82.2	87.2	93.5	100.0	106.6	111.5	113.5	116.9	121.7
Private rental cost index	no.	62.5	68.6	75.7	83.7	92.7	100.0	104.7	106.3	106.7	107.1	108.1
Public rental cost index	no.	61.4	67.9	74.0	85.1	94.5	100.0	105.0	110.0	112.5	115.3	118.5
Project home price index	no.	na	na	71.9	77.1	91.4	100.0	102.1	102.1	103.0	105.8	108.1
Established home price index	no.	na	na	62.6	69.5	92.2	100.0	100.8	104.6	106.0	109.1	112.6
Materials used in house building price index	no.	na	na	77.9	83.8	92.9	100.0	104.6	104.9	r106.9	r112.0	115.4
Finance commitments for new dwellings	'000	19.1	17.0	15.3	15.7	16.1	11.9	13.0	16.0	15.7	18.6	15.3
Finance commitments for new dwellings	$m	790	728	720	844	1 002	880	1 041	1 312	1 315	1 724	1 547
Finance commitments for alterations and additions	$m	597	507	499	707	998	905	983	1 359	1 642	2 899	3 477

HOUSING ASSISTANCE	Units	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
Public sector dwelling stock	'000	273.5	288.3	315.5	327.7	337.7	351.7	362.0	369.5	376.7	383.6	nya
Housing waiting list	'000	144.6	156.2	168.7	198.1	200.9	195.0	202.3	216.3	232.2	235.4	nya
Applicants accommodated	'000	41.7	46.5	49.8	47.8	49.3	53.1	51.9	49.3	54.2	55.1	nya

Reference periods: Except for the number of occupied private dwellings and the proportions which are houses, flats and apartments, owned, being purchased, and public rental, figures are for the year ending 30 June.

Housing — state summary

HOUSING STOCK	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Occupied private dwellings	'000	1995	2 252.6	1 692.9	1 225.5	590.0	653.6	184.9	57.4	111.0	6 768.0
Houses (of dwellings)	%	1994	76.2	81.1	82.5	77.7	81.4	84.7	63.2	81.3	79.4
Flats and apartments (of dwellings)	%	1994	15.4	12.8	12.6	6.0	7.1	9.7	25.0	9.3	12.5
Owned (of dwellings)	%	1994	44.0	44.3	39.3	41.1	37.7	45.2	14.3	28.1	41.8
Being purchased (of dwellings)	%	1994	25.8	30.1	28.1	28.5	32.0	25.4	29.3	36.3	28.3
Public rental (of dwellings)	%	1994	7.0	3.7	4.1	11.2	6.3	7.3	21.4	12.8	6.2
Size of new private sector houses	m^2	1994–95	194	185	201	189	217	174	195	169	197
Size of new public sector houses	m^2	1994–95	182	111	130	123	143	167	169	158	141
Dwellings completed	'000	1994–95	47.3	30.3	48.5	11.0	24.1	4.2	1.5	4.1	170.2

HOUSING COSTS	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Affordability index(a)	no.	1994–95	108.9	138.0	139.9	157.1	159.1	168.2	na	156.8	140.9
Project home price index(a)	no.	1994–95	107.9	105.8	112.5	114.6	100.0	121.3	125.2	129.2	108.1
Established home price index(a)	no.	1994–95	113.7	97.9	139.3	111.7	109.0	129.0	178.1	130.4	112.6
Materials used in house building price index(a)	no.	1994–95	115.0	115.9	115.9	118.8	112.7	117.3	na	na	115.4
Finance commitments for new houses	'000	1994–95	4.6	3.9	3.0	1.4	0.9	0.2	0.1	1.2	15.3
Finance commitments for new houses	$m	1994–95	540.7	351.7	304.2	121.2	85.2	14.9	9.8	119.8	1 547.4
Finance commitments for alterations and additions	$m	1994–95	1 242.0	868.6	659.5	242.2	284.7	75.9	25.4	78.3	3 476.6
Mean weekly rent	$	1994	135	115	116	88	104	93	98	128	118

HOUSING ASSISTANCE	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Public sector dwelling stock	'000	1993–94	130.0	67.7	49.2	62.3	36.2	14.5	11.4	12.4	383.6
Housing waiting list	'000	1993–94	87.2	49.3	27.7	40.2	14.3	3.8	5.8	7.1	235.4
Applicants accommodated	'000	1993–94	11.8	10.2	10.9	8.1	7.5	2.6	1.6	2.4	55.1

(a) State data refers to capital cities only.

Housing — definitions and references

Affordability index — the ratio of average household income to the average income needed to meet the repayments for an average established dwelling purchased by a first home buyer. A value of 100 indicates that a household with average income would meet the average income requirements to service the average mortgage. An increase in the index represents an improvement in affordability.
Reference: Commonwealth Bank of Australia and the Housing Industry Association *Housing Report*

Alterations and additions — all approved structural and non-structural changes to a dwelling of a value of not less than $10,000 which are integral to the functional and structural design of the dwelling, eg garages, carports, pergolas, reroofing, recladding etc., but excluding swimming pools, ongoing repairs, landscaping, and maintenance and home improvements not involving building work.
Reference: Housing Finance for Owner Occupation, Australia (5609.0)

Applicants accommodated — the total number of public rental applicants accommodated in a year.
Reference: Department of Housing and Regional Development, Housing Assistance Act 1989 *Annual Report*

Average weekly earnings index — the total weekly ordinary time (before tax) earnings of full-time adult employees divided by the total number of full-time adult employees and expressed as an index with base year 1989–90=100.
Reference: Average Weekly Earnings, Australia (6302.0)

Being purchased — a dwelling that is currently being purchased for accommodation by the occupant(s) by means of a mortgagor or other form of finance.
Reference: Income and Housing Surveys; Australian Housing Survey, 1994 (4181.0)

Established house price index — the price of detached residential dwellings on their own block of land, regardless of age (ie including new houses sold as a house/land package as well as older houses) expressed as an index with base year 1989–90=100.
Reference: House Price Indexes: Eight Capital Cities (6416.0)

Finance commitments — firm offers to provide finance for owner-occupation or alterations and additions which have been, or are normally expected to be, accepted. Commitments to provide housing finance to employees and commitments accepted and cancelled in the same month are included.
Reference: Housing Finance for Owner Occupation, Australia (5609.0)

Flats and apartments — dwellings contained in blocks having two or more storeys of dwelling units.
Reference: Income and Housing Surveys; Australian Housing Survey, 1994 (4181.0)

Household — a person living alone or a group of related or unrelated people who usually reside and eat together.
Reference: Australian Housing Survey, 1994 (4181.0)

Houses — dwellings separated from other dwellings, buildings or structures by space of at least half a metre to allow access on all sides. This category also includes houses which have an attached flat.
Reference: Income and Housing Surveys; Australian Housing Survey, 1994 (4181.0)

Housing interest rate — the financial year annual average of the interest rate applicable on the last working day of each month to standard variable rate loans for owner-occupation of large bank housing lenders. It is the predominant or representative rate (or range of rates) of major banks, although some banks may quote rates outside the ranges.
Reference: Reserve Bank of Australia *Monthly Bulletin*

Housing waiting list — the number of applicants (households) waiting for public rental accommodation on 30 June.
Reference: Department of Housing and Regional Development, Housing Assistance Act 1989 *Annual Report*

Materials used in house building price index — prices of selected materials used in the construction of dwellings expressed as an index with base year 1989–90=100. Data for national total is a weighted average of six state capital cities.
Reference: Price Index of Materials Used in House Building (6408.0)

Mean weekly rent
Reference: Australian Housing Survey, 1994 (4182.0)

Occupied private dwellings — the premises occupied by a household.
Reference: Household Estimates, Australia (3229.0)

Owned — a dwelling owned outright by one or more of the occupants.
Reference: Income and Housing Surveys; Australian Housing Survey, 1994 (4181.0)

Private/public sector dwellings completed — when building activity has progressed to the stage where the building can fulfil its intended function. The ABS regards buildings as completed when notified as such by the respondents (builders) to the survey.
Reference: Building Activity, Australia (8752.0.40.001)

Private rental index — the average rent of privately owned dwellings (rented through real estate agents in each capital city) expressed as an index with base year 1989–90=100.
Reference: Consumer Price Index, Quarterly (6401.0)

Project home price index — the price of dwellings available for construction on a client's block of land expressed as an index with base year 1989–90=100.
Reference: House Price Indexes: Eight Capital Cities (6416.0)

Public rental — dwellings rented from a State Housing Department, Trust or Commission, the ACT Housing Trust or the Northern Territory Department of Lands, Housing and Local Government.
Reference: Income and Housing Surveys; Australian Housing Survey, 1994 (4181.0)

Public rental index — the average rent of government authority dwellings in metropolitan areas expressed as an index with base year 1989–90=100.
Reference: Consumer Price Index, Quarterly (6401.0)

Public sector dwelling stock — those rental dwellings held by state housing authorities.
Reference: Department of Housing and Regional Development, Housing Assistance Act 1989 *Annual Report*

Size of new private/public sector houses — average floor area of houses intended for private/public ownership at building completion.
Reference: Building Activity Microfiche Service, Australia (8753.0)

Home ownership

HOUSING STOCK

In 1994, 42% of households owned their homes outright and 28% were purchasing their homes.

Australia has one of the highest home ownership rates among OECD countries, with approximately 70% of households being owners or purchasers[1]. However, the rate of home ownership in Australia is not equally distributed across the states and territories, nor across different age groups, family types, or income groups. Whether a household owns, is purchasing or renting its dwelling is closely related to the life-cycle stage of its members.

Housing tenure

In 1994, of the 6.8 million households in Australia, 42% were outright owners, 28% were purchasers, 6% were public renters and 21% were other renters. Over the previous one and a half decades the combined proportion of households who were outright owners or purchasers of their homes had been stable at approximately 70%. However, there was a shift in the respective proportions owning outright and purchasing. Between 1980 and 1994, the proportion of outright owners increased by 4 percentage points and the proportion of purchasers decreased by 5 percentage points. This partly reflects the overall ageing of the population, with households consisting of older people being more likely to own their homes outright.

Tenure type varies with population age structure and differences in housing affordability (see *Population — state summary table* p.3 and *Housing — state summary table* p. 135). Tasmania had the highest proportion of households who owned their homes outright (45%), reflecting both the older median age of its population (33 years) and also its more affordable housing. The Northern Territory had the lowest proportion of households who owned their homes outright (14%) and the youngest median age (28 years). More than half of the households in the Northern Territory rented their homes (52%), significantly higher than the national figure of 28%. 21% of households in the Northern Territory were public renters, reflecting the higher proportion of Indigenous households (see *Housing conditions of indigenous people* pp. 142–145). The Australian Capital Territory had the highest proportion of households purchasing their homes (36%), reflecting the

Trends in tenure type

Tenure type	1980	1990	1994
	%	%	%
Outright owner	38.3	42.4	41.8
Purchaser	33.6	29.2	28.3
Public renter	4.8	5.8	6.2
Other renter	20.2	19.8	21.4
Other	3.1	2.8	2.2
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**

Source: *Survey of Housing Occupancy and Costs* (8724.0); *Survey of Income & Housing Costs and Amenities* (unpublished data); *Australian Housing Survey: Selected Findings* (4181.0).

Households

A *reference person* is the nominated partner in a couple family household; the parent in a one parent household; and the person in a lone person household. In other households it is an adult nominated by the household.

Outright owners are households where the reference person owns the home outright.

Purchasers are households where the reference person is paying off a loan or mortgage for the dwelling.

Public renters are households where the reference person rents from a State or Territory housing authority.

Other renters comprise private renters and other renters. Private renters are households where the reference person rents from a landlord who is a real estate agent or a person not in the same household. Other renters include households where the reference person rents from a landlord who is an employer (private or government), an owner/manager of a caravan park, or a housing co-operative/community/church group.

Recent first home buyers are households who purchased their first homes in the years 1992–94 and neither the reference person of the household, nor their partner, had owned a home previously in Australia.

Recent changeover buyers are households who purchased homes in the years 1992–94 and the reference person of the household, or their partner, had owned a home previously in Australia.

Household tenure type by state, 1994

State	Outright owners	Purchasers	Public renters	Other renters	Other	Total
	%	%	%	%	%	%
NSW	44.0	25.8	7.0	21.2	2.0	100.0
Vic.	44.3	30.1	3.7	20.0	2.0	100.0
Qld	39.3	28.1	4.1	26.0	2.5	100.0
SA	41.1	28.5	11.2	16.6	2.6	100.0
WA	37.7	32.0	6.3	21.6	2.4	100.0
Tas.	45.2	25.4	7.3	18.7	3.4	100.0
NT	14.3	29.4	21.4	31.1	3.8*	100.0
ACT	28.1	36.2	12.8	21.8	1.0*	100.0
Australia	**41.8**	**28.3**	**6.2**	**21.4**	**2.2**	**100.0**

Source: *Australian Housing Survey: Selected Findings* (4181.0)

relatively young median age (30 years) of its population.

Life-cycle changes

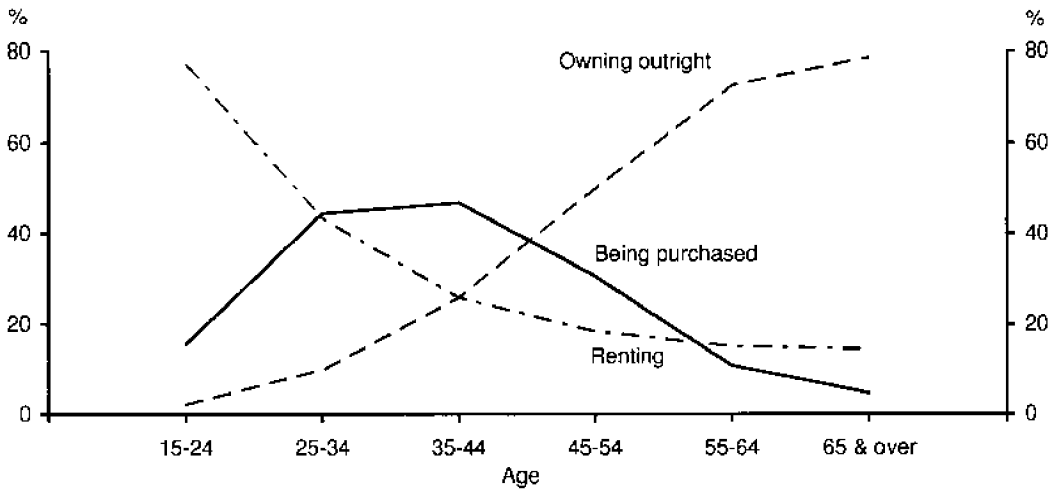
In their late teens and early 20s people often leave the parental home and start renting. In 1994, 77% of households with a reference person aged 15–24 years were renting. By their mid 20s and 30s people are likely to start buying their first home and in 1994, 56% of recent first home buyer households had a reference person aged 25–34. By their 40s and 50s, many people have paid off their mortgage. In 1994, 50% of households with a reference person aged 45–54 years owned their homes outright. At age 65 and over, this had increased to 79%.

Outright owners

Outright owners are generally older than purchasers and renters, reflecting the time taken to repay a housing loan. Many are in the later stages of the life-cycle and have children who have left home. In 1994, the median age of reference persons in outright owner households was 59 years. 81% of people who owned their homes outright were aged 45 or over.

Couple only households are more likely than other household types to own their homes. In 1994, 57% of couple only households owned their homes outright, compared to 37% of two parent households and 29% of one parent households.

Tenure type by age of household reference person, 1994



Source: *Australian Housing Survey* (unpublished data)

Tenure type of selected household types, 1994

Tenure type	Couple only household	Two parent household	One parent household	Lone person household	Other household	All households
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Outright owners	56.6	36.8	28.8	45.9	24.9	41.8
Purchasers	24.1	44.3	20.2	15.0	19.7	28.3
Renters	17.8	17.4	49.1	34.9	52.9	27.6
Other	1.5	1.5	2.0	4.2	2.5	2.2
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
Recent first home buyers	6.8	5.0	2.7	3.6	5.7	5.0
Recent changeover buyers	9.6	10.3	5.4	6.4	6.0	8.4

Source: *Australian Housing Survey* (unpublished data)

Most outright owner households (90%) lived in separate houses, even though other types of housing made up 21% of the total housing stock.

Purchasers

Purchasers are in an earlier stage of the life-cycle than outright owners and many have children living at home. In 1994, the median age of reference persons who were purchasers was 39 years. Almost 50% of reference persons aged 35–44 years were purchasing a home. Over half (54%) of purchasers in 1994 were two parent households.

44% of two parent households were purchasing their homes. In contrast, 20% of one parent households were purchasing and 49% were renting. This reflects the economic disadvantage of one parent households and the difficulty they may have in establishing themselves as purchasers.

Most purchasers (91%) were buying separate houses, but 5% were buying semi-detached, row or terrace houses, or townhouses and 4% were buying flats, units, or apartments.

Recent first home buyers

In 1994, 13% (895,000) of total households were recent home buyers. Of these, 37% (334,000) were first home buyers. Many Australians buy their first homes at an early stage in their lives. The median age of reference persons in recent first home buyer households in 1994 was 30 years. Over 70% were under 35, and 16% were under 25.

Recent first home buyer households in 1994 were most likely to consist of couple households, with or without children. 34% were couple only households and another 34% were couple households with dependent and/or non-dependent children. 16% of recent first home buyer households were lone person households and 5% were one parent households.

82% of recent first home buyer households purchased separate houses, 9% purchased semi-detached, row or terrace houses, or townhouses, and 9% purchased flats, units or apartments. The median price paid by recent first home buyers for separate houses was $106,000. 13% bought houses priced over $160,000. The majority of recent first home buyers were paying off a loan or mortgage for their dwellings. Only 11% bought their homes outright.

Dwellings

Separate houses are self-contained dwellings with access on all sides (at least one half metre). They include houses that have an attached flat.

Semi-detached, row or terrace houses, or townhouses are dwellings with their own private grounds and no dwelling above or below. They are attached in some structural way, or separated by less than one half metre, to one or more neighbouring dwellings.

Flats, units or apartments include all self-contained dwellings in blocks of flats, units or apartments that usually share a common entrance. They include houses converted into flats and flats attached to houses.

Almost two-thirds (63%) of recent first home buyer households had three bedrooms while 13% had four or more bedrooms. Slightly less than one-quarter (22%) had more than one bathroom. About three-quarters of recent first home buyers bought established dwellings.

Recent changeover buyers

In 1994, over half a million households, or 8% of all households, were recent changeover buyers. For many people, increasing age and the progression through the life-cycle means changing family or work arrangements and consequently different housing needs.

The median age of reference persons in recent changeover buyer households was 43 years. Recent changeover buyer households in 1994 were most likely to consist of couple households, with or without children. 28% were couple only households and another 42% were couple households with dependent and/or non-dependent children living at home. 17% of recent changeover buyer households were lone person households and 5% were one parent households.

The increasing affluence of many people through the life-cycle is reflected in the greater price paid by recent changeover buyers for their dwellings compared to recent first home buyers. Generally the changeover homes purchased are of higher quality than those purchased by first home buyers. 29% of recent changeover buyer households had four or more bedrooms and 43% had two or more bathrooms.

The median price paid by recent changeover buyers for all dwelling types was $134,000. This price is 26% higher than that paid by recent first home buyers for their homes. 32% of recent changeover buyers purchased new dwellings and 24% paid more than $185,000 for their homes. 35% of recent changeover buyers bought their new homes outright.

Housing affordability

There is no single standard measure of housing affordability. One measure used in housing research is the ratio of housing costs to income[2]. Households can be considered to have affordability problems if they are in the lowest two income quintiles (each quintile contains 20% of total households ranked on household income) and spend more than 30% of their incomes on housing costs.

In 1994, 30% of households in the lowest quintile and 25% of households in the second quintile spent more than 30% of their gross weekly incomes on housing. However, within these two groups, housing affordability problems were not equally distributed across different tenure types.

14% of outright owners in the lowest quintile and 4% of outright owners in the second quintile spent more than 30% of their gross weekly incomes on housing. In contrast, over half of purchasers and about half of renters in

Recent home buyer households, 1994

	Recent first home buyer			Recent changeover buyer		
Purchase price	New home	Established home	Total	New home	Established home	Total
	%	%	%	%	%	%
$85,000 or less	22.5	30.9	28.7	15.4	16.4	16.1
$85,001–$110,000	33.8	26.5	28.3	18.8	16.4	17.2
$110,001–$135,000	23.2	16.4	18.1	16.2	17.5	17.1
$135,001–$160,000	11.3	11.2	11.2	15.3	13.2	13.9
$160,001–$185,000	4.4*	5.6	5.3	10.6	9.8	10.0
$185,001 and over	4.2*	9.0	7.8	22.0	24.2	23.5
Total(a)	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total recent home buyer households	**85.5**	**248.7**	**334.2**	**176.8**	**383.6**	**560.3**

(a) Includes purchase price not known.

Source: *Australian Housing Survey: Selected Findings* (4181.0)

Households spending more than 30% of their gross weekly incomes on housing, 1994

Tenure type	Lowest quintile	2nd quintile	3rd quintile	4th quintile	Highest quintile	Total
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Owner	14.3	3.7	1.0	0.2*	0.3*	4.9
Purchaser	66.3	56.1	38.9	17.5	7.5	26.1
Renter	50.7	42.5	11.0	4.3	0.9*	26.2
Total	**30.2**	**25.2**	**16.0**	**8.3**	**3.7**	**16.7**
Recent first home buyer	57.7	53.2	42.6	18.8	7.6	29.2
Recent changeover buyer	27.1	26.5	31.5	19.0	11.4	21.3

Source: *Australian Housing Survey* (unpublished data)

the lowest two quintiles spent more than 30% of their gross weekly incomes on housing costs.

In the lowest and second quintiles recent changeover buyers experienced fewer housing affordability problems than recent first home buyers. 27% of recent changeover buyers in both the lowest and second quintiles spent over 30% of their gross weekly incomes on housing. In comparison over 50% of recent first home buyers in both the lowest and second quintiles spent over 30% of their gross weekly incomes on housing.

Housing affordability problems experienced by some purchasers may be voluntary. This is because purchasers may choose to pay off a mortgage that is difficult to service in the short-term, but which will ultimately result in the long-term advantage of outright ownership.

Endnotes

1 National Housing Strategy (1992) *The Role of Home Ownership* Background paper No. 10.

2 National Housing Strategy (1992) *National Housing Strategy: summary of papers.*

Housing conditions of Indigenous people

HOUSING STOCK

Indigenous households are more likely than non-Indigenous households to live in rented dwellings. In 1994, 70% of dwellings occupied by Indigenous households were rented, compared to 28% of all dwellings in Australia.

The housing conditions of Indigenous Australians have received increasing attention both locally and internationally in recent years. Despite the improvements that have been made in providing housing for Indigenous people, such as land ownership, improved dwelling design and the recognition of cultural needs, the standard of accommodation remains lower than that experienced by other Australians[1].

There are a number of factors that affect the housing conditions of Indigenous people. These include income, education, employment status, population growth, previous funding, remoteness, community infrastructure, cultural factors and land ownership[2]. In particular, employment status and income affect the affordability of housing.

Where Indigenous people live

In 1994, there were estimated to be 303,000 Indigenous people in Australia. More than half of them lived in either New South Wales (27%) or Queensland (26%).

43% of Indigenous people lived in other urban areas, 30% lived in rural areas and 27% lived in capital cities. Geographic location can influence housing conditions. For example, there is generally more choice of housing in urban areas than in rural areas.

The geographic distribution of Indigenous people varies in each state. In 1994, 55% of Indigenous people in New South Wales lived in other urban areas and 13% lived in rural areas. In comparison, 27% of Indigenous people in the Northern Territory lived in other urban areas and 59% lived in rural areas.

Dwellings, location and landlords

Private dwellings are premises occupied by a household and include houses, flats, home units, garages, tents and improvised dwellings. They exclude special dwellings such as hostels, hospitals, and prisons.

Indigenous households are those households in which one or more members identified as Indigenous.

Capital city comprises all state and territory capital city statistical divisions.

Other urban comprises all centres with a total population of 1,000 and over excluding capital cities.

Rural comprises rural areas and towns with a total population of less than 1,000 people. Most remote Indigenous communities are included in this category.

Landlords comprise: state housing authorities; *community landlords*, where the dwellings are owned by community organisations, predominantly Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander organisations; *other government landlords*, where the dwellings are owned by commonwealth, state/territory and local governments; and *other landlords*, which include non-government employer provided housing.

Where Indigenous people lived, 1994

State	Capital city	Other urban	Rural	Total	Total
	%	%	%	%	'000
New South Wales	31.9	55.3	12.8	100.0	80.5
Victoria	47.9	43.3	8.7	100.0	19.2
Queensland	19.3	44.4	36.3	100.0	79.8
Western Australia	28.2	42.8	29.0	100.0	47.3
South Australia	42.5	28.9	28.5	100.0	18.4
Tasmania	29.3	35.9	34.9	100.0	10.1
Northern Territory	14.4	26.7	58.9	100.0	46.0
Australia(a)	**27.2**	**42.8**	**30.0**	**100.0**	**303.2**

(a) Includes the Australian Capital Territory and Jervis Bay.

Source: *National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Survey, 1994* (unpublished data)

Type of dwelling occupied by Indigenous households, 1994

Type of dwelling	Capital city	Other urban	Rural	Total
	%	%	%	%
Separate house	83.5	87.3	88.2	86.2
Semi-detached, row or terrace house or townhouse	5.7	4.7	1.3*	4.2
Flat unit or apartment	8.3	6.5	1.4*	5.9
Other dwelling(a)	2.5	1.5	9.1	3.6
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
Total dwellings(b)	'000	'000	'000	'000
	28.6	**37.3**	**20.5**	**86.4**

(a) Includes caravans, tents, cabins, houseboats, improvised homes (eg garages, sheds, tents, shacks etc), campers out and houses or flats attached to a shop, office etc.
(b) Includes type of dwelling not stated.

Source: *National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Survey, 1994* (unpublished data)

Type of dwelling

In 1994, 86% of dwellings occupied by Indigenous households were separate houses compared to 79% of all Australian dwellings[3].

The type of dwelling varied according to geographic location. 84% of dwellings occupied by Indigenous households in capital cities were separate houses compared to 88% in rural areas. Capital cities had the highest proportions of semi-detached, row or terrace houses, or townhouses (6%) and flats, units or apartments (8%) occupied by Indigenous households. This partly reflects the availability of this type of accommodation in these areas.

Other dwellings, which include caravans, shacks and improvised accommodation, were most common in rural areas (9%).

Nature of occupancy

Indigenous households are much more likely to be renters than owners or purchasers. In 1994, 70% of Indigenous households lived in rented dwellings compared to 13% in dwellings that were owned and 13% that were being purchased by a household member. In comparison 28% of all households in Australia lived in rented dwellings, 42% lived in dwellings owned by a household member and 28% in dwellings being purchased by a household member[3].

Indigenous people living in rented dwellings were part of larger households than those living in dwellings that were either owned or being purchased. While 70% of the dwellings occupied by Indigenous households were rented, 75% of Indigenous people lived in them. Of Indigenous people living in rented dwellings, 23% lived in dwellings which had eight or more other residents compared to 7% of those living in dwellings that were owned and 4% of those living in dwellings that were being purchased.

The ability to purchase a home is closely related to income. In 1994, 60% of Indigenous households had an annual gross income of $40,000 or less, and 20% had under $16,000. This compares to 65% and 25% respectively for all Australian households (see *Income of Indigenous people* pp. 121–125).

Nature of occupancy of Indigenous households, 1994

Type of occupancy	Dwellings	Persons(a)
	%	%
Rented	70.1	75.3
Being purchased	12.6	10.6
Owned	12.7	8.8
Other	4.5	5.3
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**
Total(b)	'000	'000
	86.4	**293.8**

(a) Excludes people in special dwellings.
(b) Includes nature of occupancy not stated.

Source: *National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Survey, 1994* (unpublished data)

Selected characteristics of dwellings of Indigenous households(a), 1994

Dwelling characteristics	Capital city	Other urban	Rural	Total
	%	%	%	%
Electricity/gas connected	99.9	99.4	92.3	97.9
Running water	99.5	98.9	92.4	97.6
Toilet	99.3	99.0	90.8	97.2
Bathroom/shower	98.5	97.8	89.3	96.0
Dwelling is on a sealed road	98.5	95.2	58.3	88.1
Proportion of dwellings with 8 people or more	2.6	5.9	17.2	7.5

(a) Excludes characteristic not stated.

Source: *National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Survey, 1994: Detailed findings* (4190.0 and unpublished data)

Dwelling characteristics

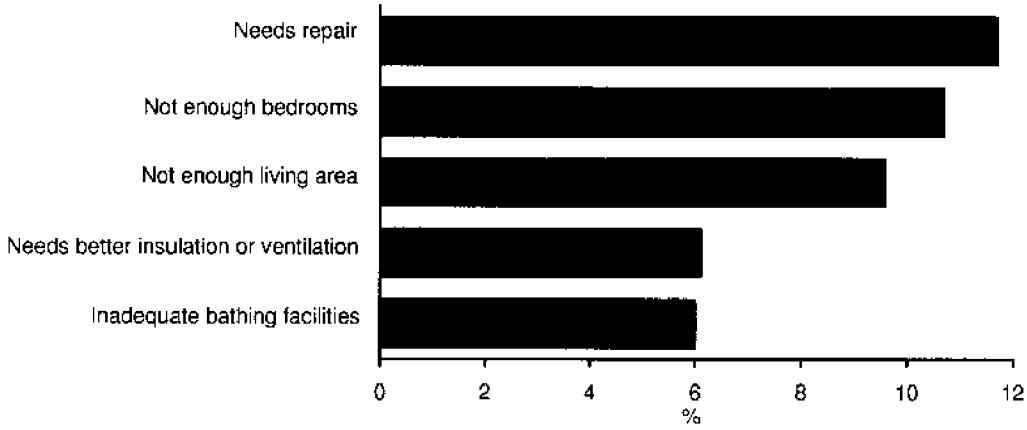
The quality of housing can affect the health of the occupants. The absence of running water, toilets and bathing facilities can lead to an increased incidence of disease among dwelling occupants[4].

In 1994, almost all dwellings occupied by Indigenous households in capital cities and other urban areas had electricity and/or gas connected, toilet, running water and bathroom/shower facilities. Dwellings in rural areas were less likely than those in capital cities or other urban areas to have these facilities. 8% of rural dwellings did not have electricity and/or gas connected, 8% did not have running water, 9% did not have a toilet and 11% did not have a bathroom/shower.

Overcrowding is an important issue affecting the housing conditions of Indigenous people[1]. In 1994, 20% of Indigenous people lived in the 8% of dwellings which had eight or more residents. In comparison, less than 1% of the total Australian population lived in households of eight or more people[5]. Large Indigenous households were most common in rural areas where 38% of Indigenous people lived in the 17% of dwellings which had eight or more residents. In comparison, in capital cities 8% of Indigenous people lived in the 3% of dwellings which had eight or more residents, and in other urban areas 17% of Indigenous people lived in the 6% of dwellings which had eight or more residents.

There are many reasons why Indigenous people live in larger households. For example, it is not uncommon for Indigenous people to live with their extended families. In 1994, 8% of Indigenous households were multi-family households compared to less than 1% of all Australian households[5].

Problems with dwellings(a) reported by Indigenous households not satisfied with their dwelling, 1994



(a) More than one problem may have been reported.

Source: *National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Survey, 1994: Detailed findings* (4190.0)

Problems with dwellings

In 1994, 12% of all dwellings occupied by Indigenous households were in need of repair. 11% of dwellings did not have enough bedrooms and 10% did not have enough living area. Additionally, 6% of dwellings had inadequate bathing facilities and 6% did not have sufficient insulation or ventilation.

Rental housing

In 1994, 78% of all dwellings occupied by Indigenous households in other urban areas were rented, compared to 64% in both capital cities and rural areas. 43% of rented dwellings occupied by Indigenous households were state housing, 26% were privately owned and 21% were community owned.

The type of landlord varies with geographic location. State housing was the main source of rental housing in capital cities (47%) and other urban areas (54%). This was followed by private landlords, who provided 42% of rented dwellings in capital cities and 21% in other urban areas. In rural areas, the majority of rented accommodation was provided by community organisations (58%).

People's satisfaction with their homes is linked to their expectations and to the problems they have experienced. In 1994, the household reference person of 76% of Indigenous households stated that the dwelling they lived in satisfied the occupants' needs. The highest level of dissatisfaction (38%) was experienced by those renting from community organisations. Tenants in privately rented dwellings were least likely to be dissatisfied (14%).

31% of renters in rural areas were dissatisfied with their dwellings compared to 24% in capital cities and 22% in other urban areas. This reflects the fact that community organisations provide much of the housing in rural areas and there is a high level of dissatisfaction with dwellings rented from this type of landlord. Additionally, the limited choice of housing in rural areas means that those who are dissatisfied with their dwelling may not be able to find alternative housing that better satisfies their needs[2].

Dwellings rented by Indigenous households, 1994

Type of landlord	Capital city	Other urban	Rural	Total
	%	%	%	%
State housing	47.5	53.9	11.1	42.8
Private	42.2	21.3	14.4	26.2
Community	4.6	15.2	57.8	21.1
Other government	3.6	2.6	7.3	3.9
Other(a)	2.1*	7.0	9.4	6.0
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total	**18.2**	**28.6**	**12.8**	**59.6**

(a) Includes employer provided housing and type of landlord not stated.

Source: *National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Survey, 1994* (unpublished data)

Proportion of Indigenous renter households dissatisfied with dwellings(a), 1994

Type of landlord	Capital city	Other urban	Rural	Total
	%	%	%	%
Community	41.5	29.4	42.3	37.8
State housing	34.2	22.4	13.4	25.9
Private	13.2	15.1	13.1	13.9
Other government	13.8	22.0	7.0	13.8
Total	**24.4**	**21.5**	**30.9**	**24.4**

(a) Excludes satisfaction not stated.

Source: National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Survey, 1994 (unpublished data)

Endnotes

1 Jones, R (1994) *The housing need of Indigenous Australians, 1991* Centre for Aboriginal Economic Policy Research ANU, Research Monograph No 8.

2 The National Housing Strategy (1991) *Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Housing: discussion package.*

3 *Australian Housing Survey, 1994* (4181.0).

4 Pholeros, P. et al. (1993) *Housing for Health - Towards a Healthy Living Environment for Aboriginal Australia* Health Habitat.

5 *Australian Housing Survey, 1994* (unpublished data).

Housing after separation

HOUSING ARRANGEMENTS

In 1992, there were 354,000 men and 521,000 women who remained unpartnered after separation or divorce. Equal proportions of these men and women lived in their previous marital homes.

Marital breakdown is an event that causes housing difficulties for many families. Two adults who had combined their resources to provide for one dwelling now need to be able to provide for two dwellings. This occurs at a time when there are a range of other stresses placed on the families.

In 1992 there were 875,000 separated and divorced people (ie people whose marriage had ended but who were not in another permanent relationship). According to divorce registrations in 1992, the median length of time between separation and divorce was 3 years. The median length of time between divorce and remarriage for those who did remarry was 2.8 years for men and 3.2 years for women. Thus there are on average about 6 years between marriage breakdown and remarriage. However, some of that time may be spent in a de facto relationship. Men are more likely to remarry than women (see Australian Social Trends 1995 pp. 33–37 *Trends in marriage and divorce*).

Separated and divorced people and the previous marital home

Separated people have not formally ended their registered marriage by legal means, but have parted from their spouses and are unlikely to re-unite. They are not currently married or in a de facto relationship.

Divorced people have formally ended their registered marriage by legal means, have not remarried and are not currently in a de facto relationship.

The *previous marital home* is the home in which separated or divorced people were living before they separated from their partners.

Housing costs are the weekly rental or board payments for renters and boarders, and the weekly loan repayments for home purchasers.

The marital home

In 1992, 354,000 men and 521,000 women (6% of men and 8% of women) were separated or divorced (and had not repartnered). The majority (61%) of these people were divorced.

28% of men and women who were separated or divorced lived in their previous marital homes. Those who were separated were more likely to be living in the previous marital

Separated and divorced people, 1992

Housing arrangements	Men	Women	Persons
	%	%	%
Separated	*100.0*	*100.0*	*100.0*
Lives in the previous marital home	33.4	39.7	37.1
Does not live in the previous marital home(a)	66.6	60.3	62.9
Divorced	*100.0*	*100.0*	*100.0*
Lives in the previous marital home	24.9	21.3	22.7
Does not live in the previous marital home(a)	75.1	78.7	77.3
Separated and divorced	*100.0*	*100.0*	*100.0*
Lives in previous marital home	28.3	28.5	28.4
Does not live in previous marital home(a)	71.7	71.5	71.6
	'000	'000	'000
Separated and divorced(b)	**354.2**	**520.6**	**874.9**

(a) Includes those who moved house and were separated in the same year. While most would have moved as a result of the separation this may include some who moved house with their partner prior to separation.
(b) Includes those for whom place of residence could not be determined.

Source: *Survey of Families in Australia* (unpublished data)

home than those who were divorced. This pattern reflects the increasing likelihood of moving as the period since marital breakdown increases. 40% of separated women lived in the previous marital home compared to 21% of divorced women. In contrast 33% of separated men lived in the previous marital home compared to 25% of divorced men.

Overall 66% of people who had been separated for less than one year and had not repartnered were still living in the homes they had lived in when married. However three to four years after separation, only 33% continued to live in their previous marital homes.

Children

After separation or divorce women who remained unpartnered were more than twice as likely as men who remained unpartnered to have children living with them, 62% compared to 25%. Of those who had children living with them, just over three-quarters were women. While the women were equally as likely as the men to stay in the previous marital home overall, the presence of children gave rise to different patterns. Separated and divorced people who had children living with them were more likely to live in the family home than those who had no children or whose children were not living with them. 42% of men who had children living with them lived in the previous marital home compared to 33% of women.

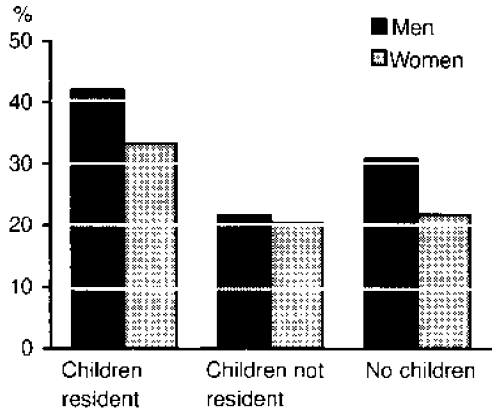
Being a non-custodial parent may also impact on housing needs. As people not living with their children they have different housing needs from lone parents. However, they may still need to accommodate the child(ren) when they visit. 58% of separated or divorced men had children who were not living with them compared to 27% of women.

Separated and divorced people, 1992

Children resident	Men	Women	Persons
	%	%	%
Children resident	25.2	62.0	47.1
Children not resident	58.3	27.1	39.8
No children	16.5	10.7	13.1
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	'000	'000	'000
Total	**354.2**	**520.6**	**874.9**

Source: *Survey of Families in Australia* (unpublished data)

Proportion of unpartnered separated and divorced people living in their previous marital home, 1992



Source: *Survey of Families in Australia* (unpublished data)

Tenure

On separation one or both partners usually leave the marital home. For those who leave, the most easily accessible housing is rental accommodation.

In 1992, 43% of separated and divorced people lived in rented dwellings compared to 16% of couples. Separated and divorced people who lived in their previous marital homes were less likely to be renting than those who had moved out. This is mainly because the home ownership rate among couples is high (see *Home ownership* pp. 137–141) and the previous marital home was where a couple once lived. Women were more likely to be renters than men whether they lived in the previous marital home or not. However, men were more likely to be private renters while women were more likely to be in public rental accommodation.

Those still living in their previous marital homes were more likely than those who had moved to be home owners (44%) or purchasers (33%). Similar proportions of men and women were home owners or purchasers.

Housing costs

Housing is the single largest cost that many people face. Since housing costs measure rental or loan repayments, they are strongly

Housing tenure of separated and divorced people, 1992

Housing arrangements	Owners	Purchasers	Private renters	Public tenants	Other	Total	Total(a)
	%	%	%	%	%	%	'000
Lives in previous marital home	*43.9*	*32.8*	*9.8*	*8.5*	*5.0*	*100.0*	*246.6*
Men	45.5	33.4	13.3	2.3	5.5	100.0	98.7
Women	42.9	32.4	7.4	12.6	4.6	100.0	147.9
Does not live in previous marital home(b)	*16.1*	*14.6*	*38.9*	*14.4*	*16.0*	*100.0*	*621.6*
Men	16.8	13.1	41.7	6.1	22.3	100.0	250.2
Women	15.6	15.6	37.0	20.0	11.8	100.0	371.4
Persons(c)	*24.0*	*19.7*	*30.7*	*12.6*	*12.9*	*100.0*	*874.9*
Men	24.9	18.8	33.8	5.0	17.6	100.0	354.2
Women	23.4	20.3	28.7	17.8	9.8	100.0	520.6

(a) Includes not stated.
(b) Includes those who moved house and were separated in the same year. While most would have moved as a result of the separation this may include some who moved house with their partner prior to separation.
(c) Includes those for whom place of residence could not be determined.

Source: *Survey of Families in Australia* (unpublished data)

related to the tenure people hold. Separated and divorced people had higher median housing costs than couples and spent a greater proportion of their incomes on housing. This reflects the fact that couples are more likely to own their homes outright and hence to have lower housing costs. They also tend to have higher family incomes (see *Home ownership* pp. 137–141).

Living in the previous marital home has a major impact on the housing costs of separated and divorced people. In 1992, separated and divorced people living in their previous marital homes had median weekly housing costs of $22, representing 7% of their incomes. Those not living in their previous marital homes had median weekly housing costs of $64, representing 22% of their incomes. The low proportion of income spent on housing by those living in the previous marital home reflects the high level of home ownership among this group (44%).

Separated and divorced women spent a greater proportion of their incomes on housing than men. This is mainly related to women generally receiving lower incomes than men. If women were living in their previous marital homes they paid, on average, 8% of their incomes on housing compared to 5% for men. For women not living in their previous marital homes, 24% of their incomes went on housing costs compared to 18% for men.

Median weekly housing costs, 1992

Marital status	Housing costs					
	Men		Women		Persons	
	$	% income	$	% income	$	% income
Couple	..	..	..	..	34	5.3
Separated and divorced people(a)	52	13.8	52	18.8	52	17.2
Living in the previous marital home	22	4.9	22	7.7	22	6.5
Not living in the previous marital home(b)	61	18.2	65	23.8	64	22.1
Never married people	44	12.0	40	13.6	42	12.5

(a) Includes those for whom place of residence could not be determined.
(b) Includes those who moved house and were separated in the same year. While most would have moved as a result of the separation this may include some who moved house with their partner prior to separation.

Source: *Survey of Families in Australia* (unpublished data)

Median weekly housing costs of separated and divorced people, 1992

	Housing costs					
Children resident	Men		Women		Persons	
	$	% income	$	% income	$	% income
Children resident	49	11.7	63	21.4	60	19.3
Children not resident	52	16.7	31	17.7	44	20.1
No children	73	17.2	76	17.6	74	17.2
Total	**52**	**13.8**	**52**	**18.8**	**52**	**17.2**

Source: *Survey of Families in Australia* (unpublished data)

The housing costs of men and women differed substantially depending on whether they had children and if those children were living with them. Women with resident children spent the highest proportion of their incomes on housing, 21% compared to 12% of the incomes of men with children living with them. Men who reported having no resident children spent 17% of their incomes on housing. This was higher than the proportion for men who had children living with them, but lower than the proportions for women. These differences reflect the different income patterns of men and women over the life-cycle. Women's income stabilises through ages 30–50, the ages at which they are most likely to have dependent children, while the incomes of men continue to rise until their late 40s.

Housing for older people

HOUSING ASSISTANCE

In 1994, 77% of people aged 60 and over owned their homes outright, compared to 24% of people aged 15–59.

Access to affordable and suitable housing is a major factor in the quality of life and well-being of older people. As Australia's population ages (see Australian Social Trends 1994 pp. 27–29 *Projections of the aged population*), ensuring that older people have access to suitable housing will be an increasingly important policy issue[1].

While many older people are well housed, some, particularly private renters and people who live alone (the majority of whom are women), may experience problems in accessing suitable housing[1].

In 1985, the government embarked on a program of reforms to aged care services through the Aged Care Reform Strategy[2]. This involved enhancing older people's independence in the community to avoid premature admission to supported accommodation[3]. Since 1985, government expenditure has shifted away from nursing homes towards hostel and community care, particularly through the Home and Community Care program (HACC)[4].

Older people and housing

In this review, *older people* are those aged 60 and over and *younger people* are those aged 15–59.

The *reference person* is the nominated partner in a couple household (usually the husband), the parent in a one parent household, and the person in a lone person household. The reference person in other households is an adult nominated by the household.

Health establishments include hospitals, nursing homes, hostels, and retirement villages with a nursing home or supported facility on site.

A *household* is a person living alone or a group of related or unrelated people who live together as a single unit in the sense that they share common housekeeping arrangements.

Private dwellings are houses, townhouses, flats, home units, garages and other structures occupied by households as private places of residence.

Living arrangements of older people, 1993

	60–69 years		70–79 years		80 years and over		60 years and over
Living arrangements	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Persons
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
In private dwellings	*97.6*	*98.4*	*96.1*	*94.9*	*83.9*	*74.3*	*94.0*
With spouse(a)	79.6	63.5	74.1	41.8	54.5	13.8	59.4
With relatives other than spouse	4.0	9.9	3.8	12.6	8.6	17.1	8.7
With unrelated people	1.5	1.1*	1.4*	1.1*	* *	0.8*	1.2
Alone	12.5	23.9	16.9	39.4	20.2	42.6	24.7
In non-private dwellings	*2.4*	*1.6*	*3.9*	*5.1*	*16.1*	*25.7*	*6.0*
Health establishments	1.1	1.0	3.3	4.4	15.7	25.0	5.2
Other non-private dwellings(b)	1.3	0.6*	0.5*	0.6*	* *	* *	0.8
Total people	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total people	**686.1**	**714.3**	**410.7**	**531.2**	**142.9**	**277.7**	**2 763.0**

(a) Comprises people who live with their spouse only, or with their spouse and other people.
(b) Includes hotels, motels, boarding houses, religious institutions, construction camps and short-stay caravan parks.

Source: *Disability, Ageing and Carers Survey* (4430.0 and unpublished data)

Living arrangements

The majority of older people live independently in the community. In 1993, 94% of older people lived in private dwellings and 5% lived in health establishments. The remainder lived in other non-private dwellings. Between 1988 and 1993, the proportions of older people living in private dwellings changed little except for women aged 80 and over. In 1988, 66% of women in this age group lived in private dwellings but this had increased to 74% by 1993.

In 1993, 25% of older people lived alone. Those living alone were more likely to be women than men, and the likelihood of living alone increased with age. 18% of people aged 60–69 lived alone compared to 35% of people aged 80 and over (see *People who live alone* pp. 33–35).

The likelihood of living in a health establishment also increased with age, particularly for women. 1% of women aged 60–69 lived in health establishments compared to 25% of women aged 80 and over.

Older women were more likely than older men to live in health establishments (7% compared to 4%). This is related to the higher proportion of women than men who are aged 70 or more, and to the higher rate of severe and profound handicap among older women (see Australian Social Trends 1995 pp. 55–57 *Older people with disabilities*). Another factor, which is related to women's longer life expectancy (see *Health — national summary table* p. 50), is that older men were more likely than older women to be living with a spouse who could help care for them. 75% of older men were living with their spouse in 1993 compared to 47% of older women.

Housing tenure

Home ownership increases with age (see *Home ownership* pp. 137–141). In 1994, 77% of older people owned their homes compared to 24% of younger people. 5% of older people were purchasing their homes compared to 30% of younger people.

Older people living in couple households were more likely to be home owners than those in lone person households (85% compared to 70%) and less likely to be renters (8% compared to 22%). Among older people, lone women (73%) were more likely to be owners than lone men (62%).

Older people were less likely than younger people to be renting (12% compared to 24%). However those older people who did rent were more likely to be public renters than younger people who were renting. 6% of older people compared to 4% of younger people were public renters, and 5% of older people were private renters compared to 18% of younger people.

Housing affordability

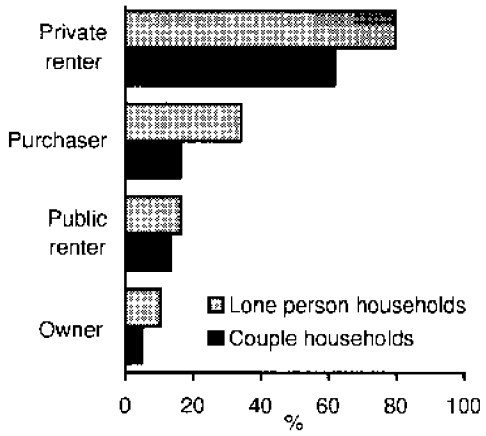
Despite their low average income, most older people have access to affordable housing. While their rate of home ownership is high,

Housing tenure by age and household type, 1994

	People in lone person households		People in couple households		All people	
Tenure type	15–59 years	60 years and over	15–59 years	60 years and over	15–59 years	60 years and over
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Owner	23.3	70.0	28.6	85.4	24.1	76.8
Purchaser	25.3	4.2	35.2	5.9	29.5	5.2
Renter	*47.4*	*21.5*	*16.3*	*7.5*	*23.6*	*11.5*
Public	7.0	11.3	2.9	3.4	3.7	5.6
Private	38.4	7.3	11.8	3.4	17.5	4.6
Other	4.1	4.3	19.9	1.1	22.7	6.5
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total	**744.6**	**709.5**	**7 807.9**	**1 583.9**	**11 038.2**	**2 635.1**

Source: *Australian Housing Survey* (unpublished data)

Proportion of older person households(a) with housing affordability problems(b), 1994



(a) Refers to households whose reference person is aged 60 and over.
(b) Housing affordability problems are defined as the proportion of older person households in the lowest two income quintiles who spent more than 25% of their incomes on housing costs.

Source: *Australian Housing Survey* (unpublished data)

some older people may experience housing affordability problems, in particular private renters and people who live alone. Older people are much more likely than younger people to live alone.

There is no single standard measure of housing affordability. One measure used in housing research is the ratio of housing costs to income[5]. Households can be considered to have affordability problems if they are in the lowest two income quintiles (each quintile contains 20% of total households when ranked on household income) and spend more than 25% of their incomes on housing costs.

In 1994, 12% of older households were in the lowest two income quintiles and spent more than 25% of their incomes on housing costs compared to 14% of younger households.

Housing affordability varies by tenure and by household type. In 1994, among older households, 67% of private renter households compared to 7% of owner households had affordability problems. Fewer couple households experienced affordability problems than lone person households (8% compared to 17%). This is related to people in couple households being more likely to be owners, and less likely to be private renters, than people living alone.

Men who lived alone were more likely to be private renters, and less likely to be owners, than women who lived alone, and a greater proportion of lone male (20%) than lone female (16%) households had affordability problems. However, because of the predominance of women among older people living alone, the majority (67%) of lone person households with affordability problems were female.

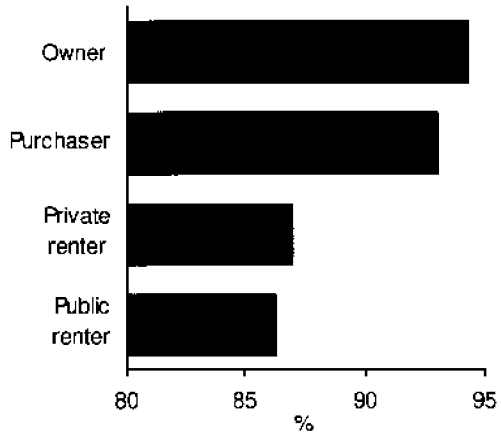
Housing suitability

When asked about their overall satisfaction with their dwelling in 1994, a greater proportion of older households (93%) reported that they were satisfied than younger households (83%). Among older households, owners and purchasers were the most satisfied, followed by renters.

When asked about the safety and security of their dwelling in 1994, a greater proportion of older than younger households were satisfied (91% compared with 82%). Owners were the most satisfied with safety and security (92%), and public renters among the least satisfied (83%).

Most older people remain in the family home, and many prefer to do so[6]. However, the greater chance of living alone and becoming disabled and frail with age may mean that the family home requires modifications (see Australian Social Trends 1995 pp. 55–57 *Older people with disabilities*). Some older people would prefer to move to more suitable accommodation but do not because of the

Older person households(a) who reported overall satisfaction with their dwelling, 1994



(a) Refers to households whose reference person is aged 60 or over.

Source: *Australian Housing Survey* (unpublished data)

Proportion of older people with a disability who had modified their dwelling(a), 1993

Age	Men	Women	Persons
	%	%	%
60–69	4.7	10.0	7.0
70–79	9.0	14.5	11.9
80 and over	16.9	22.9	20.5
Total	**8.1**	**14.5**	**11.4**
	'000	'000	'000
Total	**50.7**	**93.5**	**144.2**

(a) Refers to people aged 60 and over with a disability living in households.

Source: *Disability, Ageing and Carers Survey* (unpublished data)

stress and costs of moving. Housing modifications are a way of making existing accommodation more suitable.

In 1993, among older people with a disability who lived in households, 8% of men and 15% of women had modified their dwelling. The proportion of people who had modified their dwelling increased with age. The most common modifications (47% of all modifications), especially for those aged 80 and over, were the installation of rails, bars or straps. 17% of all modifications involved new/changed furniture or fittings, and 16% involved ramps, or changes to floors, steps, paths or drives.

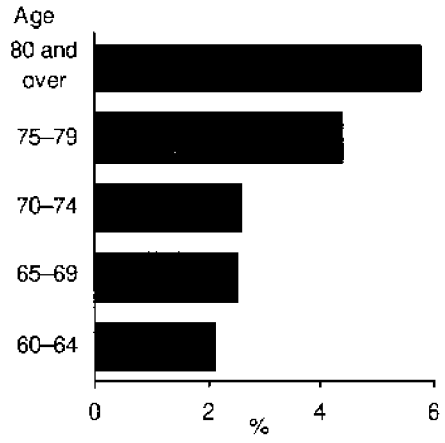
The need to move house is one indication of the suitability of older people's housing. In 1993, 3% of older people living in private dwellings had moved house in the previous five years because of their disability or age. Among older people, the likelihood of having moved house for these reasons increased with age.

3% of older women and 2% of older men needed to move house (this may include some people who had already moved, and needed to move again). The most common reason, given by 34% of people who needed to move, was because of their illness or condition. Among older people who had moved or needed to move, half expressed a preference for remaining in their current dwelling. Of those who needed to move, 50% of men and 62% of women said they faced barriers to moving. Cost was the most common barrier mentioned.

The trend towards community care

Since 1985, the government has increased the range and funding of services available to older people living in the community[2]. While overall funding for aged care and the proportion spent on community care have increased, the proportion spent on nursing home care has decreased. Expenditure on the

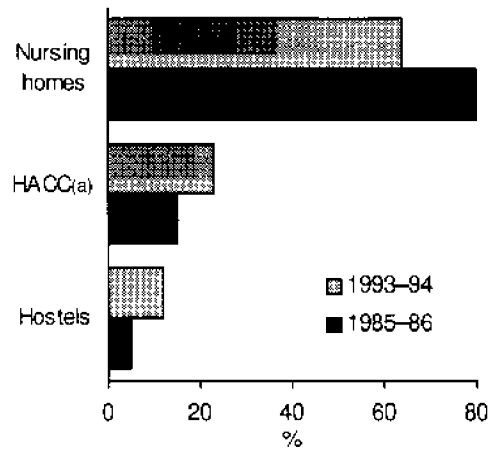
Older people(a) who had moved house in the previous five years because of disability or age, 1993



(a) Refers to people aged 60 and over living in private dwellings.

Source: *Disability, Ageing and Carers Survey* (unpublished data)

Relative proportion of total government aged care expenditure



(a) Note that a small proportion of Home and Community Care (HACC) clients are non-aged disabled.

Source: Australian Institute of Health and Welfare *Australia's Welfare 1995: services and assistance*

People in nursing homes(a)

Age	30 June 1988 rate(b)	30 June 1994 rate(b)
Men		
70–79	17.1	15.5
80 and over	76.9	70.3
Total 70 and over	**31.3**	**29.9**
Women		
70–79	23.2	19.1
80 and over	161.0	131.7
Total 70 and over	**68.1**	**58.4**

(a) Nursing homes are those approved by the Department of Health and Family Services for recurrent funding.
(b) Nursing home residents per 1,000 people of the same age category.

Source: Australian Institute of Health and Welfare (unpublished data)

Government assistance

The *Home and Community Care Program (HACC)* is a joint commonwealth/states and territories funded program which began in 1985. The program provides an integrated range of assistance to the aged and people with a disability in the community, and their carers. Among the range of services are home help, personal care, home maintenance and modification, community respite care, transport, community nursing, allied health services, assessment and referral, education and training, and information and coordination[7].

A range of other assistance and concessions is available to help older Australians maintain their independence in the community, some of which may not be specifically targeted at older people. Included are: assistance for carers, including the carers' pension; home and centre based respite care; rental assistance and rates rebates; and assistance for home modifications[4].

Home and Community Care program (HACC) as a proportion of total government aged care expenditure increased from 15% in 1985–86 to 20% in 1989–90, and to 23% in 1993–94.

Decreased funding for nursing homes is related to the decreasing proportion of people aged 70 and over living in nursing homes. Between 1988 and 1994, the proportion of the population aged 70 and over living in nursing homes declined for both men and women. The greatest reduction occurred among people aged 80 and over, particularly among women.

A major aim of government policy is to ensure that nursing home and hostel places go to people who are most in need of supported accommodation[3]. Between 1987 and 1995, the level of dependency (that is, the level of personal care required, as assessed by the Department of Health and Family Services) for people entering nursing homes and hostels increased. This suggests that residents of these institutions were appropriately accommodated. It also indicates that less dependent people, who would in the past have been admitted to nursing homes and hostels, are now being cared for in the community[2,3].

Maintaining independence

The majority of older people require no assistance to maintain their independence. In 1993, over half (56%) of all people aged 60 and over living in the community felt they needed no help or assistance, because of their age or disability, with activities connected with their daily life[8].

Of older Australians living in households, women were more likely than men to need help (57% compared to 29%). This cannot be explained entirely by the different age structures of the older male and female populations. The trend is at all ages above 60. It may be due to the higher proportion of older women who live alone, particularly home owners, to the higher rate of severe and profound handicap among older women, and to the generally greater reluctance of men to seek assistance.

Older people(a) needing help with daily living, 1993

Age	Men	Women
	%	%
60–69	18.7	41.0
70–79	33.3	66.5
80 and over	68.8	86.7
Total 60 and over needing help	**28.6**	**56.8**
	'000	'000
Total 60 and over	**1 196.0**	**1 423.0**

(a) Refers to people aged 60 and over living in households.

Source: *Disability, Ageing and Carers Survey* (4430.0)

In 1993, most older Australians living in households who needed help received as much assistance as they required, but 13% felt they needed more help[8].

Many older people are themselves providers of assistance. In 1992, at least 42% of people aged 60 and over provided support to a relative[8]. In 1993, 6% of older Australians were identified as principal carers[8] (see *Principal carers and their caring roles* pp. 44–48).

Endnotes

1 The National Housing Strategy (1992) *Housing for Older Australians: Affordability, Adjustments and Care* Background paper No 8.

2 Australian Institute of Health and Welfare (1993) *Australia's Welfare 1993: Services and Assistance.*

3 Department of Human Services and Health (1995) *Annual Report 1994–95.*

4 Australian Institute of Health and Welfare (1995) *Australia's Welfare 1995: Services and Assistance.*

5 National Housing Strategy (1992) *National Housing Strategy: Summary of Papers.*

6 Davison, B. et al. (1993) *It's My Place: Older People talk about their Homes* AGPS, Canberra.

7 Department of Health, Housing, Local Government and Community Services (1993) *Program Performance Statements 1993–94.*

8 *Focus on Families: Caring in Families: Support for Persons who are Older or have Disabilities* (4423.0).

Transport

Registered cars

SPECIAL FEATURE

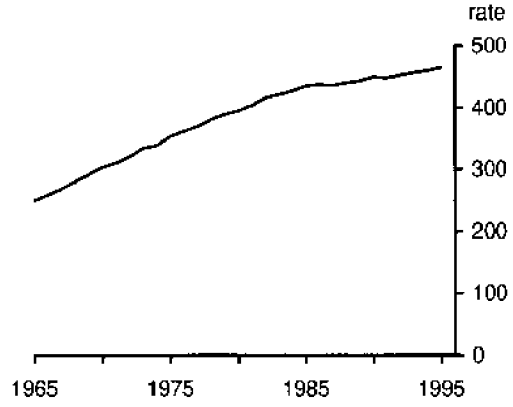
The number of passenger vehicles registered per 1,000 population has increased from 250 in 1965 to 465 in 1995.

The convenience and flexibility offered by the car has made it the dominant form of transport in Australia. The number of passenger vehicles registered per 1,000 population increased from 250 in 1965 to 465 in 1995. Passenger vehicles have become, for many people, essential to accessing employment, education, health services, shopping and recreational activities (see *Car use* pp. 163–166). However, the use of passenger vehicles also has social, environmental and economic costs, including road accidents, smog and greenhouse emissions, depletion of fossil fuel reserves, and urban traffic congestion[1].

Passenger vehicles

At 30 June 1995, there were 8.4 million passenger vehicles registered in Australia. South Australia had the highest number of registrations per 1,000 population (515) and the Australian Capital Territory had the second highest (512). The lowest numbers of passenger vehicles per 1,000 population were in the Northern Territory (355) and New South Wales (415). The low rate of passenger vehicle registrations in the Northern Territory reflects the greater use of light commercial vehicles in rural and remote areas. The low rate in New South Wales reflects the many households in Sydney that rely on public transport (see *Public transport use* pp. 167–169).

Passenger vehicle registrations per 1,000 population



Source: *Motor Vehicle Registrations, Australia* (9304.0)

Cars

The data in this review are from ABS motor vehicle registration collections and the Household Expenditure Survey.

ABS motor vehicle registrations data are obtained from state motor vehicle registration authorities. In these collections, *passenger vehicles* are defined as being constructed primarily for the carriage of less than 10 passengers (including the driver). They include cars, station wagons, 4 wheel drive passenger vehicles and people moving vans. *Light commercial vehicles* are defined as being constructed primarily for the carriage of goods and weighing less than 3.5 tonnes gross vehicle mass. They include utilities, panel vans, cab-chassis and cargo vans (whether 4WD or not). Both passenger and light commercial vehicles may be registered by an individual or by a private or public organisation.

In the Household Expenditure Survey, *private cars* are any registered passenger vehicles or light commercial vehicles that are usually garaged or kept by the members of a household and are not solely used for business purposes.

Light commercial vehicles

While light commercial vehicles are primarily constructed for the carriage of goods, many are used for the carriage of passengers. At 30 June 1995, there were 1.7 million light commercial vehicles registered in Australia. The Northern Territory had the highest registration of light commercial vehicles per 1,000 population (147) and Queensland had the second highest (114). The lowest numbers of light commercial vehicles per 1,000 population were in the Australian Capital Territory (60) and South Australia (67). The high rates in the Northern Territory and Queensland partly reflect the higher proportion of people living outside capital cities in these states, while the low rates in the Australian Capital Territory and South Australia reflect the higher proportion of people living in urban areas (see *Population — state summary table* p. 3).

An ageing fleet

The average age of passenger vehicles in Australia has increased. In 1995, the average age of passenger vehicles registered was 10.4 years. The corresponding average ages in

Type of vehicle by state, 30 June 1995

State	Passenger vehicles registered		Light commercial vehicles registered	
	'000	rate(a)	'000	rate(a)
New South Wales	2 534.8	414.5	564.2	92.3
Victoria	2 277.9	506.0	384.7	85.5
Queensland	1 504.2	459.0	372.0	113.5
South Australia	759.4	515.2	98.3	66.7
Western Australia	860.7	497.0	158.9	91.8
Tasmania	237.2	501.5	49.7	105.1
Northern Territory	61.7	354.8	25.5	146.6
Australian Capital Territory	155.6	511.7	18.2	59.8
Australia	**8 391.5**	**464.8**	**1 671.5**	**92.6**

(a) Per 1,000 population.

Source: *Motor Vehicles in Australia* (unpublished data)

1993, 1991 and 1988 were 10.2, 9.7 and 9.1 years respectively. The ageing of motor vehicles has implications for emissions, fuel use and safety.

1985 was the most common year of manufacture of passenger vehicles registered at 30 June 1993. These vehicles accounted for 7% of all registered passenger vehicles. Unleaded fuel became mandatory for all petrol passenger and commercial vehicles manufactured after 1985. However, in 1993, 60% of all registered passenger vehicles may have still been able to use leaded fuel.

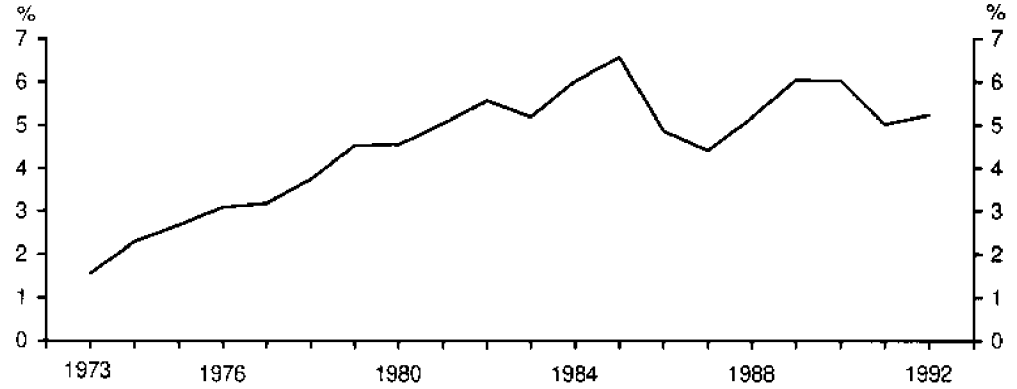
New registrations

The ageing of the car vehicle fleet is associated with a decrease in new motor vehicle registrations. Between 1966 and 1975, new passenger vehicle registrations per 1,000 population gradually increased from 26 per year to 37. Between 1976 and 1995 there was an overall decrease from 33 per year to 29. However there were fluctuations in the second half of the 1980s with the lowest rates of new passenger vehicle registrations occurring in 1987 and 1988 (around 23 per 1,000 population).

In 1995, registrations of new passenger vehicles totalled 527,149. The top five makes (Ford, Holden, Toyota, Mitsubishi and Hyundai) accounted for 75% of them. Their shares of the market were 22%, 20%, 16%, 10% and 7%, respectively.

In 1995, registrations of new light commercial vehicles totalled 86,104. The top five makes (Toyota, Ford, Holden, Mitsubishi and Mazda) accounted for 90% of them. Their shares of

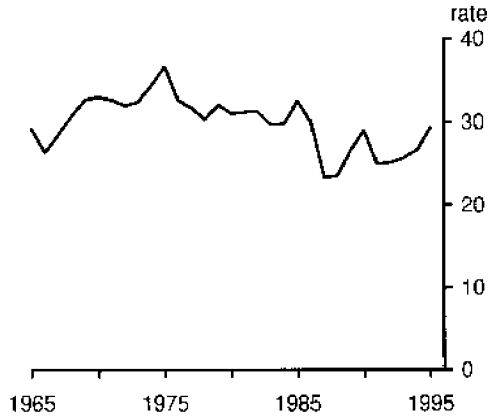
Proportion of passenger vehicles registered(a) in 1993 by their year of manufacture



(a) Registered at 30 June. Excludes vehicles manufactured prior to 1973 and in 1993.

Source: *Motor Vehicle Census* 1993 (9309.0)

Registrations(a) of new passenger vehicles per 1,000 population



(a) Data prior to 1972 refers to calendar year and data for 1972 and after refers to financial year.

Source: *Motor Vehicle Registrations* (9304.0)

the market were 33%, 20%, 19%, 11% and 6%, respectively.

Private cars

In 1993–94, 51% of Australian households had one registered private car, 26% had two and 7% had three or more. 16% did not have any registered private cars.

The number of registered private cars in households can be related to household size and income. Generally, households with the most people aged 15 or over had the most registered private cars. For example, the majority (64%) of households with two registered private cars had two household members aged 15 or over. 43% of households with three registered private cars had three household members aged 15 years or over and 49% of households with four registered private cars had four household members aged 15 years or over.

The number of adults living in the household is often associated with higher household income. Multiple car registrations were more common among those households with higher incomes. 40% of households in the highest income quintile had two registered private cars and 20% had three or more. In comparison, 8% of households in the lowest income quintile had two registered private cars and less than 1% had three or more. 41% of households in the lowest income quintile had no registered private cars, compared to 6% of households in the highest income quintile.

Weekly household income by private cars registered, 1993–94

Income quintiles	Number of private cars registered			
	0	1	2	3+
	%	%	%	%
Lowest	40.8	50.0	8.4	0.8
2nd	17.2	62.4	18.4	2.0
3rd	10.2	58.1	28.1	3.6
4th	7.2	47.5	36.9	8.4
Highest	5.9	34.8	39.7	19.7
Total	**16.3**	**50.6**	**26.3**	**6.9**
	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total households	**1 075.7**	**3 345.5**	**1 739.9**	**455.7**

Source: *Household Expenditure Survey* (unpublished data)

Private car buyers

In 1993–94, 3% of households purchased a new private car and 15% purchased a used private car. Households which bought new cars tended to have higher average weekly incomes than those purchasing used cars. Couple family households with non-dependent children were the most likely

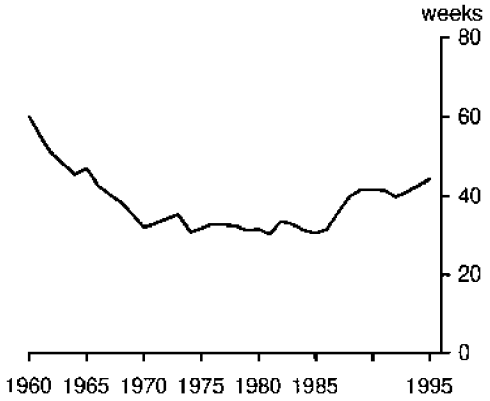
Proportion of households who were car buyers, 1993–94

Household type	New car buyer	Used car buyer	Average weekly income
	%	%	$
Couple only	3.2	11.2	689
Couple with dependent children	2.6	20.5	876
Couple with non-dependent children	4.5	25.6	1 110
Lone parent with dependent children	* *	7.9	406
Lone male	2.2	9.6	429
Lone female	1.9	4.4	289
All households(a)	**2.7**	**15.4**	**723**
	$	$	$
Average weekly income	**959**	**911**	**723**

(a) Includes other households.

Source: *Household Expenditure Survey* (unpublished data)

Weeks of average male total weekly earnings required to buy a new Ford Falcon(a)



(a) Retail price of Ford Falcon for 1990 not available.

Source: Ford Australia (unpublished data); *Average Weekly Earnings* (6301.0, 6350.0)

to buy either a new (5%) or used (26%) car. These households also had a comparatively higher average weekly income. Lone female households were the least likely to purchase a car (2% purchased a new car and 4% purchased a used car). These households had a comparatively lower average weekly income and were likely to be older persons.

In 1993–94, the average weekly household cost of running private cars (excluding purchase price and loan repayments) was $68. Of this, $27 was spent on petrol, $10 on vehicle servicing, $9 on compulsory registration and insurance, and $8 on non-compulsory insurance.

New car affordability

It is difficult to estimate the change in affordability of new cars because of the introduction and deletion of models and the variation in models over time. However, the Ford Falcon base model sedan has been in continual production since its release in 1960. While successive models have become more technologically advanced, it has remained a six cylinder full-size family car.

In 1960, it took 60 weeks at average male total weekly earnings to buy a new base model Ford Falcon sedan (excluding on-road costs). Over the next ten years the number of weeks of average male total weekly earnings required to purchase a new Ford Falcon declined to 32 weeks. From 1971 to 1986, this remained relatively constant. However, since 1987, there has been an upward trend, and in 1995 it took 44 weeks of average male total weekly earnings to buy a new base model Ford Falcon sedan.

While it may appear that the affordability of a large family sedan in Australia has been declining since the mid 1980s, it should be noted that there have been dramatic changes in product quality over time. Later models have additional and improved features including greater safety, economy, performance, comfort and build quality.

International comparison

National passenger vehicle registrations vary due to many factors. Cultural attitudes, prices of cars and fuel, public transport systems, road conditions and physical geography vary greatly between countries, causing differences in the number of passenger vehicles registered.

Of the countries selected, the United States had the highest rate of passenger vehicle registrations. Australia was ranked 5th.

Passenger vehicle registrations per 1,000 population

Country	Year	Registrations
	rate	rate
United States	1993	565
Italy	1991	496
Canada	1994	493
Germany	1993	482
Australia	**1993**	**456**
New Zealand	1994	455
France	1994	431
Sweden	1993	410
United Kingdom	1993	355
Japan	1994	341
Greece	1994	199
Korea (Republic of)	1994	116
Singapore	1994	111
Hong Kong	1994	55
Indonesia	1990	7

Source: International Road Federation *World Road Statistics, 1990–1994*

Endnote

1 Newman, P., Kenworthy, J. and Robinson, L. (1992) ***Winning back the cities*** Australian Consumers' Association, Pluto Press, Sydney.

Car use

SPECIAL FEATURE

Cars are the most common form of transport in Australia. In 1992, 71% of Australians used cars on an average day. These people spent, on average, 1 hr 27 mins per day on car travel.

Transport is necessary for many basic aspects of everyday living such as shopping and working, as well as participating in community activities[1]. The efficiency of transport systems affects daily life. Every day, people undertake millions of individual journeys. The time people spend on transport affects the amount of time they have available for other activities.

There are many different forms of transport. Cars dominate urban transport in Australia. While public transport is also an important form of transport, its use has been decreasing[1]. This is mainly due to increasing levels of ownership of cars. However, the use of cars has social costs, such as road accidents (see *Motor vehicle traffic accidents* pp. 170–174), traffic congestion and pollution[1].

Mode of transport

Most people use transport every day, and many people use more than one form of transport during a day. Cars are the most common type of transport used. In 1992, 71% of people used cars for transport on an average day. This was followed by walking (33%), taking a bus (5%), taking a train, ferry or tram (4%), and riding a bike (2%).

Mode of transport used, 1992

Mode of transport	Men	Women	Persons
	%	%	%
Car	*73.0*	*69.5*	*71.2*
As a driver	66.2	51.8	59.0
As a passenger	12.3	26.4	19.4
Walking	31.1	34.5	32.8
Bus	4.8	6.1	5.5
Train, ferry, tram	4.6	3.8	4.2
Bicycle	3.0	1.1	2.0
Taxi	1.2	1.3	1.2
Motor cycle	1.1	**	0.6
Other	1.2	**	0.8
Total(a)	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**

(a) Components do not add to total because people may use more than one type of transport during a day.

Source: *Time Use Survey* (unpublished data)

Cars and car use

Most of the data in this review are from the 1992 Time Use Survey. In this survey cars refer to all road vehicles used for private purposes excluding motor cycles and bicycles. It includes vans, utes etc. The data refer to people aged 15 and over.

In this review, the number of people using transport, and the time spent, are averaged over a 7 day week to give values for an *average day*. The data exclude transport workers, eg chauffeurs, in the course of their work.

A *journey* is travel undertaken for a specific purpose. For example, travelling from home to work is one journey. However, if a trip also includes a stop for another purpose, such as shopping, it represents two journeys, one for work and one for shopping.

Data for average annual distance travelled are from the 1991 Survey of Motor Vehicle Use. In this survey, cars refer to passengers vehicles, which are vehicles constructed for the carriage of less than 10 passengers, such as cars, station wagons, 4 wheel drive passenger vehicles and forward control passenger vehicles.

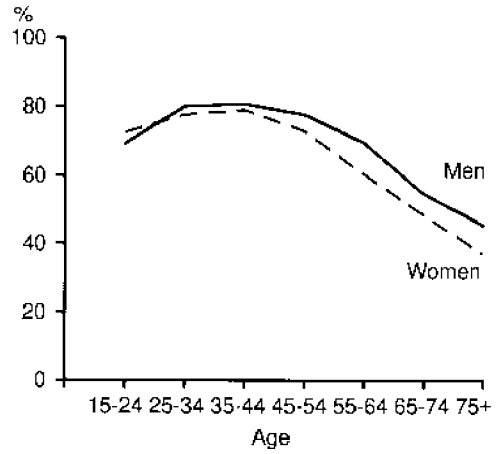
Transport usage varies according to whether it is a weekday or weekend. Many journeys during the week involve more than one mode of transport, for example, using a car and a bus to travel to work. On the weekend most journeys involve only one mode of transport, thus contributing to an overall reduction in transport usage. In 1992 people were less likely to use cars on the weekend than during the week (67% compared to 73%). They were also less likely to use public transport such as a train, ferry or tram (2% compared to 5%) or a bus (2% compared to 7%) on the weekend than during the week.

Who uses cars?

Men were more likely than women to use a car on an average day. Men were more likely to be drivers (66% compared to 52%) while women were more likely to be passengers (26% compared to 12%).

A person's age also affects whether they use a car. Drivers and passengers have different patterns of car use by age. In 1992, 71% of people aged 15–24 used cars, as drivers, passengers or both, on an average day. But only 47% of people of this age were drivers.

Proportion of people using cars, 1992



Source: *Time Use Survey* (unpublished data)

At this age many people get their licences and buy their first car. For those aged 35–44, the proportion of people using a car increased to 80%, while the proportion who were drivers increased to 74%. For those aged 75 and over, the proportion of people using a car decreased to 40%, while the proportion who were drivers decreased to 26%. This is related to many factors such as retirement, increased participation in home-based activities (see Australian Social Trends 1995 pp. 164–167 *Leisure at home*), and increased incidence of disability among the older population.

Type of car use

In 1992, 59% of people drove a car and 19% were passengers in a car on an average day. This high ratio of drivers to passengers decreases the effectiveness of the road transport system and can lead to traffic congestion, deterioration of the road surface and pollution. Strategies to improve the effectiveness of the transport system include car pooling incentives and increasing the efficiency of public transport services[2].

Type of car use varies according to the day of the week. People were more likely to travel in a car as a passenger on the weekend than during the week. This may be because families travel together in one car at the weekend but use separate cars and/or public transport during the week, especially for travel to and from work.

Time spent on transport

In 1992, those using cars did so for an average of 1 hour 27 minutes per day. People driving cars spent longer than passengers, 1 hour 26 minutes per day compared to 59 minutes per day. Men spent, on average, 20 minutes more per day using cars than women.

People aged 35–54 spent the most time per day using cars, 1 hour 36 minutes per day on average. This was followed by those aged 55–64 (1 hour 26 minutes). The longer time that people aged 35–54 spent is associated with their greater transport related commitments, such as work and family. At these ages people may have children who need to be driven to and from child care, school, social and sporting activities.

In 1992, 46% of people using cars spent between 1 and 3 hours per day in them and a further 46% spent less than 1 hour. 9% spent

International comparison

The average annual distance travelled by cars varies considerably between countries. It is affected by numerous factors including the level of urbanisation and the number of cars per capita. One of the most important is the effectiveness of the road transport system, such as road conditions, the availability of other modes of transport, the cost and reliability of public transport systems, the cost of running a car, and the cost and availability of parking.

Of the countries selected, USA had the highest annual average distance travelled per car, followed by Hong Kong. Japan had the lowest annual average distance travelled. A combination of lack of space for parking, centralisation of business, and an effective and efficient public transport system explain this low average annual distance travelled by cars in Japan.

Average annual distance travelled by cars, selected countries

Country	Year	Average distance travelled
		kilometres
Australia	**1991**	**14 600**
France	1994	14 535
Germany	1993	12 700
Great Britain	1994	16 000
Hong Kong	1994	17 658
Japan	1994	10 130
Sweden	1993	12 000
USA	1993	17 862

Source: International Road Federation (1995) *World Road Statistics, 1990–1994*

Time spent using cars, 1992

Type of car use	Aged 15–24	Aged 25–34	Aged 35–44	Aged 45–54	Aged 55–64	Aged 65–74	Aged 75 and over	Total
	minutes per day	minutes per day	minutes per day	minutes per day	minutes per day	minutes per day	minutes per day	minutes per day
Men								
Car as a driver	93	92	105	113	96	68	52	97
Car as a passenger	55	42	50	67	70	60	54	54
Total car use	90	93	107	116	98	71	53	97
Women								
Car as a driver	72	72	79	70	63	58	51	72
Car as a passenger	65	54	63	61	67	56	49	61
Total car use	79	77	85	75	73	62	54	77
Total								
Car as a driver	84	83	93	94	84	64	51	86
Car as a passenger	61	50	59	62	68	57	50	59
Total car use	**84**	**85**	**96**	**96**	**86**	**67**	**54**	**87**

Source: *Time Use Survey* (unpublished data)

over 3 hours per day. Victoria had the highest proportions of people spending between 1 and 3 hours (49%) and over 3 hours (10%) per day on car travel.

Purpose of car use

People use cars for many reasons, such as travel to and from work (including looking for work), education, shopping and leisure. In 1992, shopping was the most common purpose of car use, accounting for 26% of all journeys. This was followed by work (22%) and social activities (19%).

The purpose of car use differs between men and women. Work was the most common purpose of journeys undertaken by men (30%), followed by shopping (21%) and social activities (18%). Shopping was the most common purpose of journeys undertaken by women (30%), followed by social activities (20%) and work (14%).

Social activities, shopping and work were the most common purposes of car use for all ages. However, other reasons people undertake journeys vary according to their age. For example, in 1992, 48% of all journeys for child care were undertaken by those aged 35–44, an age when people are likely to have children requiring care.

The purpose of a journey also affects the time spent on it. In 1992 people spent, on average, 20 minutes per journey. The longest time spent was for active leisure. 7% of journeys were undertaken for active leisure reasons, such as exercise and holiday travel, and these journeys took an average of 32 minutes each. This was followed by journeys for work (31 minutes per journey) and journeys for education and passive leisure, such as travelling to borrow a book or video (22 minutes per journey). Time spent on travel is also related to distance travelled. For example, people are likely to live relatively close to shops, education and child care facilities, but further from work. Therefore, journeys to work take longer than journeys for these purposes.

Time spent using cars, 1992

State/ territory	Under 1 hour	1–3 hours	Over 3 hours	Total
	%	%	%	%
NSW	46.0	44.8	9.3	100.0
Vic.	40.3	49.3	10.4	100.0
Qld	50.0	42.4	7.6	100.0
SA	45.5	45.7	8.7	100.0
WA	46.9	46.6	6.5	100.0
Tas.	44.0	47.9	8.1	100.0
NT	62.6	35.2	**	100.0
ACT	51.8	41.4	6.8	100.0
Australia	**45.5**	**45.7**	**8.8**	**100.0**

Source: *Time Use Survey* (unpublished data)

Purpose of journeys using cars, 1992

Purpose of journey	Proportion of people	Proportion of journeys	Time spent per journey
	%	%	minutes
Shopping	46.2	25.7	13
Work(a)	41.7	22.0	31
Social activities	36.3	18.7	20
Voluntary & community activities	17.8	9.3	18
Active leisure	16.7	7.4	32
Child care	12.9	9.0	13
Domestic activities	9.9	5.4	16
Education	4.7	2.0	22
Personal care	1.5	0.5	16
Passive leisure	* *	0.1	22
Total journeys	**100.0**(b)	**100.0**	**20**

(a) Includes journeys to and from work as well as journeys to look for work.
(b) Components do not add to total because people may undertake journeys for more than one purpose on an average day.

Source: *Time Use Survey* (unpublished data)

Distance travelled

In 1991, the average annual distance travelled by cars in Australia was 14,300 kilometres, down from 15,900 kilometres in 1971[3]. This fall is partly a reflection of the increase in the average number of cars per household over that period.

The average annual distance travelled varies according to the state/territory in which a person lives. In 1991, cars registered in the Australian Capital Territory had the highest average distance travelled, 16,300 kilometres. Cars registered in Tasmania recorded the lowest average, 12,300 kilometres. The higher average distance travelled in the Australian Capital Territory may be related to the population's greater reliance on private motor vehicle transport compared to other places in Australia, including greater use of cars for travel to other cities.

Endnotes

1 Industry Commission (1994) *Urban Transport: overview, findings, and recommendations, Report No 37.*

2 Ecologically Sustainable Development Working Group (1991) *Final report - Transport*, AGPS, Canberra.

3 *Survey of Motor Vehicle Use, Australia* (9208.0).

Public transport use

SPECIAL FEATURE

In 1992, 16% of all people living in Australian capital cities used public transport on an average weekday and 4% used it on an average weekend day.

Increasing public transport usage is considered by some urban planners as a method of reducing those economic, environmental and social problems in our cities caused by over-dependence on the private motor car[1]. However, while urban travel has almost doubled in the period 1971–91, public transport's share of total journeys declined from around 13% to about 8%[2]. This trend towards decreasing public transport use is reflected in the high level of car use in Australia (see *Car use* pp. 163–166).

Although private cars dominate urban travel, public transport still plays a key role. It provides essential mobility to people who cannot afford or cannot drive a motor car. Public transport is also better suited to journeys to or from large city centres, especially in the peak hours. It moves children to school and workers to and from their places of work. Without public transport, Australia's larger cities would have difficulty functioning and their environments would suffer[3].

In 1992, 10% of people aged 15 and over in Australia used public transport on an average day, 12% on an average weekday and 3% on an average weekend day. Weekend public transport usage was lower because fewer people travel to work and educational institutions at the weekend.

Proportion of population using public transport on an average day, 1992

State	Capital city	Rest of state	Total state
	%	%	%
NSW	18.2	3.6	13.0
Vic	12.4	3.5	9.9
Qld	12.6	3.4	7.7
SA	11.0	3.4*	9.2
WA	5.8	**	4.8
Tas	7.0*	5.2*	5.9*
NT	**	**	**
ACT	6.1*	—	6.1*
Australia	**13.0**	**3.5**	**9.6**

Source: *Time Use Survey* (unpublished data)

Public transport

The data in this review are from the 1992 Time Use Survey. In this survey, *public transport* refers to passenger conveyance systems operated by government or municipal authorities, or private operators, either inside or outside capital cities. It includes suburban and country passenger trains, urban and rural buses, and metropolitan trams, ferries and buses. It excludes taxi services.

In this review, all data refer to people aged 15 and over. The proportion of people using public transport and the time they spend are averaged in three ways. They are averaged over a seven-day week to give values for an *average day*; over five weekdays to give values for an *average weekday*; and over Saturday and Sunday to give values for an *average weekend day*. Time spent includes waiting for, and travelling on, public transport. It excludes time spent by public transport workers, eg bus conductors, train drivers, in the course of their work.

Locations given in this review refer to the usual residence of the public transport passenger and not necessarily to the place in which the travel occurred.

Public transport was much more likely to be used in a capital city than in the rest of the state. In 1992, 13% of people living in capital cities used public transport on an average day compared to 3% of people living outside the capital cities. The greater public transport usage among capital city residents reflects the more extensive public transport services provided in capital cities compared to other areas. There is also greater incentive to use public transport in metropolitan areas because of parking restrictions and traffic congestion.

Capital cities

In capital cities, 16% of people used public transport on an average weekday and 4% used it on an average weekend day. While fewer people travel to work and educational institutions on the weekend, one incentive to use cars rather than public transport on the weekend comes from the availability of more car parking in the central business district.

In 1992 Sydney had the highest usage of public transport of any capital city, followed by Brisbane, Melbourne and Adelaide. 18% of

Sydney residents used public transport on an average day compared to 13% of Brisbane residents. Moreover, 23% of Sydney residents used public transport on an average weekday and 7% used it on an average weekend day.

Sydney's high rate of public transport usage is related to its levels of car ownership. One in six Sydney households, and up to half of households in some inner Sydney municipalities, are without a car[1].

Characteristics of passengers

In capital cities, 13% of both men and women used public transport on an average day. 16% of men used public transport on an average weekday and 4% used it on an average weekend day. Similarly, 17% of women used public transport on an average weekday and 5% used it on an average weekend day.

Public transport usage in capital cities also varied by age. Among men it decreased with age. 23% of men aged 15–24 used public transport on an average day compared to 6% of men aged 65 and over. Among women there was a different pattern. Although their usage was similar to that of men between the ages of 15 and 54, after 55 the proportion of women using public transport increased. 12% of women aged 55 and over used public transport on an average day.

Time spent on public transport

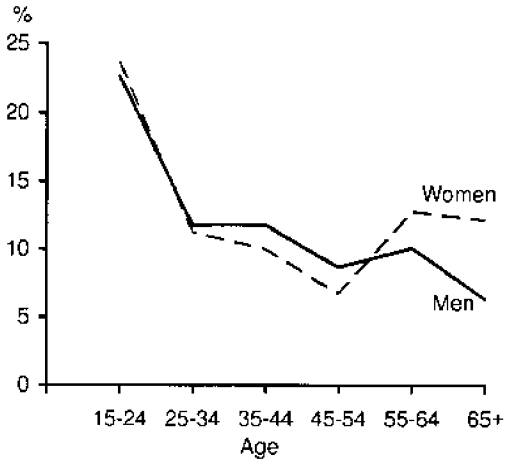
In 1992 public transport users in capital cities spent an average of 1 hour and 4 minutes per average day using public transport. They spent around the same time on public transport on weekends as on weekdays.

Although men were less likely to use public transport than women, those men who used it spent slightly more time travelling on, or waiting for, public transport. Men spent an average of 1 hour and 7 minutes per average weekday compared to the average of 1 hour and 1 minute for women. Both spent about 1 hour per average weekend day on public transport.

Time of day

In 1992, on both weekdays and weekends, public transport usage in capital cities reached its highest levels between 7am and 9am and between 4pm and 6pm. Between both 7am and 8am, and 8am and 9am, 6% of people used public transport on an average weekday.

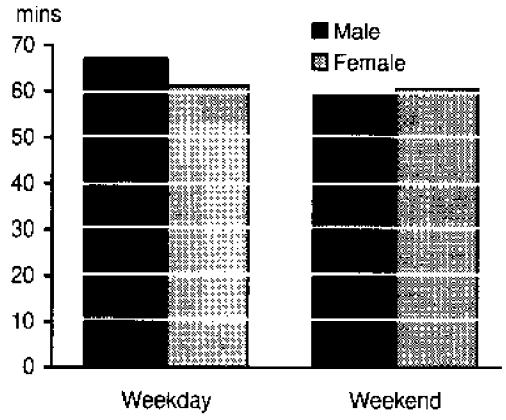
Proportion of capital city residents using public transport on an average day, 1992



Source: *Time Use Survey* (unpublished data)

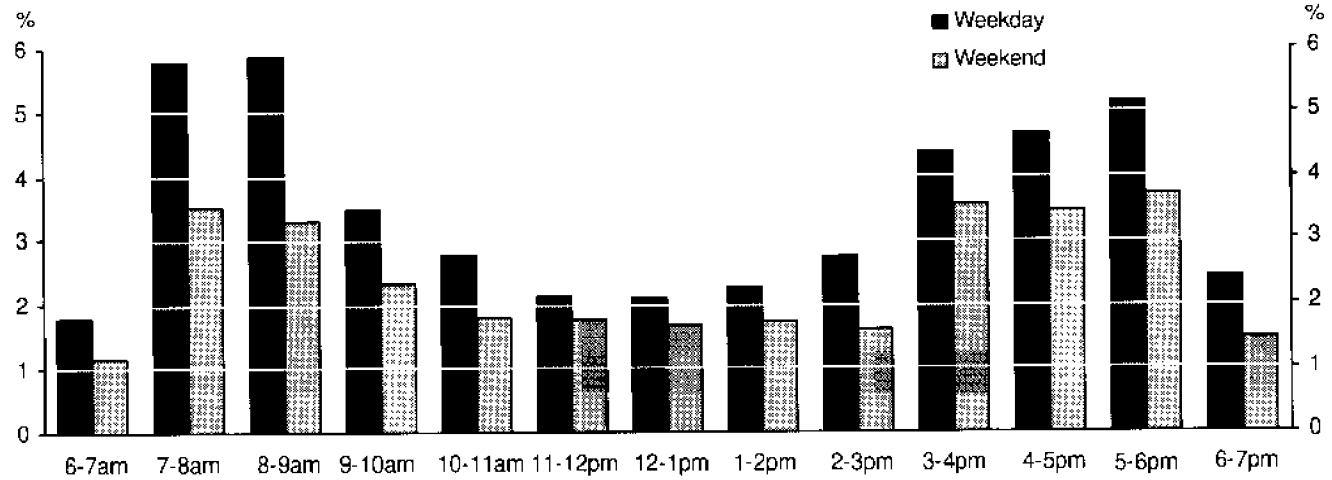
Around 3.5% of people used it on an average weekend day during these hours. Between both 4pm and 5pm, and 5pm and 6pm, 5% of people used public transport on an average weekday. Around 3.5% of people used it on an average weekend day between these hours. These peaks correspond to people travelling to and from their places of work or study. The lower rate during the weekend reflects reduced travelling to work and education. Between 11am and noon, noon and 1pm, and 1pm and 2pm, around 2% of people living in capital cities used public transport, on both average weekdays and average weekend days.

Time spent per day on public transport by capital city residents who used public transport, 1992



Source: *Time Use Survey* (unpublished data)

Proportion of capital city residents using public transport by hour of day, 1992



Source: *Time Use Survey* (unpublished data)

Purpose of public transport use

In 1992, the most common reasons for using public transport were work, followed by shopping, education and social activities. 42% of public transport users in capital cities used public transport to travel to and from work on an average day and spent an average of 63 minutes on this travel. More men than women used public transport for work and they spent more time using it. This is because more men than women are in the labour force.

Women were more likely than men to use public transport for shopping. Of those people who used public transport for shopping, women spent more time than men waiting for, and travelling on, public transport.

Men were more likely than women to use public transport for education, while women were more likely than men to use it for social activities.

Endnotes

1 Australian Urban and Regional Development Review (1995) *Timetabling for tomorrow: an agenda for public transport in Australia*.

2 Industry Commission (1994) *Urban Transport: Volume 1, Report No 37*.

3 Industry Commission (1994) *Urban Transport: overview, findings, and recommendations, Report No 37*.

Capital city residents using public transport on an average day, 1992

Purpose for using public transport	Men		Women		Persons	
	Proportion	Time spent	Proportion	Time spent	Proportion	Time spent
	%	mins	%	mins	%	mins
Work(a)	49.2	69	35.3	55	42.1	63
Shopping	19.0	42	30.6	45	25.0	44
Education	22.4	55	16.6	52	19.5	54
Social activities	15.5	45	22.1	55	18.9	51
Total(b)	**100.0**	**66**	**100.0**	**61**	**100.0**	**64**

(a) Includes travel to and from work and travel looking for work.
(b) Includes other activities. Components do not add to total as people may have more than one reason for using public transport.

Source: *Time Use Survey* (unpublished data)

Motor vehicle traffic accidents

SPECIAL FEATURE

Between 1983 and 1993, the number of people who died due to motor vehicle traffic accidents decreased by 31% and the number of people hospitalised decreased by 23%.

Motor vehicle traffic accidents are costly in terms of deaths, injuries and damage to vehicles. They remain a major social issue both in terms of years of potential life lost and in the cost to the community.

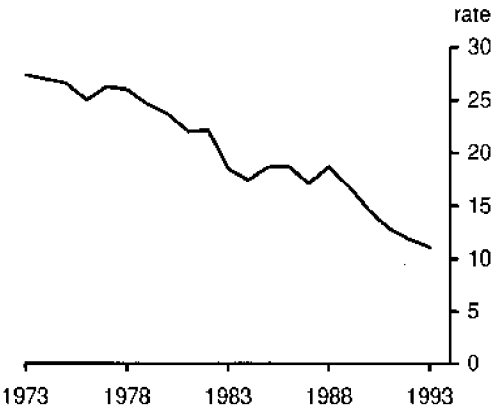
The National Road Safety Strategy, introduced in 1992, aims to save lives and reduce serious injury and loss of quality of life resulting from road crashes. The key priorities of the strategy are alcohol and drug abuse, speeding, driver fatigue, road hazards, heavy vehicles, novice drivers and riders, protection of vehicle occupants, and improved trauma management[1].

Motor vehicle traffic accident fatalities

Deaths from motor vehicle traffic accidents have declined from 27 per 100,000 population in 1973 to 11 in 1993. The introduction of compulsory seat belt legislation and random breath testing have played a major role in reducing the motor vehicle traffic accident death rate.

However, despite this fall, motor vehicle traffic accidents remain one of the main preventable causes of death in Australia. In 1993, 1,956 people died in motor vehicle traffic accidents. Almost one-third (31%) of these were aged 15–24. 7% were children aged under 15. 71% of motor vehicle traffic accident fatalities were male.

Motor vehicle traffic accident fatalities per 100,000 population



Source: *Causes of Death* (3303.0); *Estimated Resident Population by Age and Sex, Australia* (3201.0)

Traffic accidents

In this review, data are from two main sources: the ABS Causes of Death collection, and the Federal Office of Road Safety's Serious Injury Database.

The ABS Causes of Death data are compiled from data provided by the state and territory Registrars of Births, Deaths and Marriages. In this collection *deaths from motor vehicle traffic accidents* are deaths occurring within 12 months as a result of transport accidents, involving motor vehicles, which occur on a public highway. Motor vehicle traffic accidents occurring on private property are excluded.

The Federal Office of Road Safety's Serious Injury Database uses police records to compile information about road crashes resulting in death or hospitalisation. In this collection, *road crashes* refer to crashes occurring on a road involving all motorised and almost all non-motorised vehicles. Road crashes occurring on private property are excluded.

A *fatal crash* is a road crash which results in the death of at least one person within 30 days.

A *road crash fatality* is a person who dies within 30 days of a road crash due to injuries sustained.

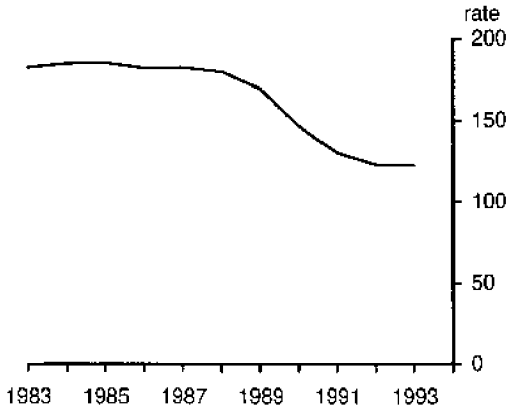
A *hospitalisation crash* is a road crash in which at least one person was classified by police as admitted to hospital from resulting injuries but in which there were no fatalities.

A *person hospitalised* is a person classified by police as admitted to hospital from injuries received in either a hospitalisation or fatal crash.

The latest available data for hospitalisations are 1993, while the latest available data for fatalities are 1994 (see *Health — state summary table* p. 51). However, in order to make comparisons between the characteristics of fatal and hospitalisation crashes, 1993 data have been used throughout this review.

In 1993, road crash fatalities most commonly occurred in New South Wales. However, per 100,000 population, more people died from motor vehicle traffic accidents in the Northern Territory than any other state or territory. In the Northern Territory, 28 people per 100,000 population died from a motor vehicle traffic accident. This was followed by 15 in South Australia and 13 in Tasmania. People in the Australian Capital Territory were least

People hospitalised per 100,000 population



Source: Federal Office of Road Safety *Serious Injury Database: 1993 Tabulations*; *Road Traffic Accidents Involving Casualties, Australia* (9405.0)

likely to be killed in a motor vehicle traffic accident, 2 per 100,000 population.

People hospitalised

In 1993, 21,602 people were hospitalised due to road crashes. 46% of these people were aged 15–29. 9% were aged under 15. The majority of those hospitalised were male (61%).

The number of people hospitalised due to road crashes has also decreased, from 182 per 100,000 population in 1983 to 122 in 1993. This rate of decrease was slower than that for fatalities.

As with fatalities, people in the Northern Territory were most likely to be hospitalised due to a road crash. In 1993, 254 people per 100,000 population were hospitalised due to a road crash there. This was followed by 154 in Western Australia and 133 in Victoria. People were least likely to be hospitalised due to a road crash in the Australian Capital Territory, with a rate of 52 per 100,000 population.

Type of road user

People who are killed or injured in road crashes are most likely to be drivers. In 1993, 44% of road fatalities and 43% of hospitalisations were drivers. Passengers accounted for a further 26% of road deaths and 27% of hospitalisations.

The type of road user killed or injured is related to patterns of usage. The 1992 Time Use Survey found that 59% of people aged 15 and over drove cars for transport on an average day, while only 19% were passengers (see *Car use* pp. 163–166). Drivers also spent more time per day on car travel than passengers (86 minutes compared to 59 minutes).

The type of road user killed or injured varied between males and females. Male fatalities were more likely to be drivers (48%) while female fatalities were more likely to be passengers (41%). Again this is linked to patterns of car use. In 1992, 66% of men drove a car on an average day compared to 52% of women. And only 12% of men were passengers in a car on an average day compared to 26% of women.

The type of road user killed or injured is also linked to age. Children can only legally be passengers, pedestrians or bicyclists, therefore the proportion of people killed or injured who were passengers is largest among those

Fatalities by type of road user, 1993

Type of road user	Aged 0–14	Aged 15–29	Aged 30–44	Aged 45–59	Aged 60 & over	All fatalities(a)
	no.	no.	no.	no.	no.	no.
Drivers	0	348	237	119	147	851
Passengers	71	227	83	48	78	512
Pedestrians	44	82	45	35	123	330
Motor cyclists(b)	2	135	49	15	1	203
Bicyclists	11	9	9	9	7	46
Total(c)	**129**	**804**	**426**	**226**	**357**	**1 953**

(a) Includes age not known.
(b) Includes pillion passengers.
(c) Includes fatalities where road user status was not known.

Source: Federal Office of Road Safety *Serious Injury Database: 1993 Tabulations*

Hospitalisations by type of road user, 1993

Type of road user	Aged 0–14	Aged 15–29	Aged 30–44	Aged 45–59	Aged 60 & over	All hospitalisations(a)
	no.	no.	no.	no.	no.	no.
Drivers	11	4 108	2 498	1 282	1 257	9 210
Passengers	869	2 497	770	494	670	5 762
Motor cyclists(b)	26	1 762	680	151	44	2 694
Pedestrians	610	726	383	290	565	2 681
Bicyclists	331	452	182	63	44	1 106
Total(c)	**1 848**	**9 575**	**4 528**	**2 290**	**2 589**	**21 602**

(a) Includes age not known.
(b) Includes pillion passengers.
(c) Includes hospitalisations where road user status was not known.

Source: Federal Office of Road Safety *Serious Injury Database: 1993 Tabulations*

aged 0–14. 55% of people aged 0–14 who died, and 47% of people aged 0–14 who were hospitalised, were passengers. The proportion of people killed or injured who were bicyclists was also largest in this age group, accounting for 9% of 0–14 year-olds who died and 18% of those who were hospitalised.

People aged 15–29 made up the largest proportion of those killed or injured in road crashes, both as drivers and as passengers (41% of fatalities and 46% of hospitalisations). This age group includes many novice drivers which may contribute to the high rates. In addition, many young people participate in risk taking behaviour, such as speeding and drink-driving.

People aged 15–29 also made up the largest proportions of motor cycle deaths and injuries, 67% of fatalities and 66% of hospitalisations. This is linked to their patterns of motor vehicle use. In 1992, less than 1% of people used a motor cycle for transport on an average day. However, 44% of these people were aged 15–24[2].

The likelihood of death or injury in a road crash varies according to the type of vehicle a person uses. Motor cycles are much more likely than cars to be involved in a fatal or hospitalisation crash. In 1993, 986 per 100,000 motor cycles were involved in a fatal or hospitalisation crash compared to 279 per 100,000 cars.

When road crashes occur

In 1993 there were 1,736 fatal crashes and 17,186 hospitalisation crashes. Crashes involving death or injury were most likely to occur on a Friday or Saturday (17% each), followed by a Thursday or Sunday (14% each).

Both fatal and hospitalisation crashes were more likely to occur between 4pm and 8pm. 23% of fatal crashes and 27% of hospitalisation crashes occurred during this time of day. A further 19% of fatal crashes and 24% of hospitalisation crashes occurred between midday and 4pm.

Factors contributing to road crashes

It is difficult to identify a single cause of road crashes since many factors are often involved. These include use of alcohol and other drugs,

When crashes occurred, 1993

Day of week	Fatal crashes	Hospitalisation crashes	Total
	%	%	%
Monday	10.0	12.5	12.2
Tuesday	11.5	12.3	12.2
Wednesday	13.2	13.1	13.1
Thursday	13.9	14.4	14.4
Friday	17.6	16.9	17.0
Saturday	18.4	16.5	16.6
Sunday	15.2	14.3	14.4
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	no.	no.	no.
Total crashes	**1 736**	**17 186**	**18 922**

Source: Federal Office of Road Safety *Serious Injury Database: 1993 Tabulations*

International comparison

A country's rate of motor vehicle traffic accident injuries and fatalities varies due to many factors. Road transport systems, vehicle safety standards, safety legislation, road conditions and modes of transport differ between countries, causing differences in the number and consequences of motor vehicle traffic accidents.

In 1991, of the countries listed, Australia had the lowest rate of motor vehicle traffic accident injury. However, it was ranked 8th highest for motor vehicle traffic accident fatalities.

Motor vehicle traffic accident injuries and fatalities per 100,000 population(a), 1991

Country	Injuries	Fatalities(b)
	rate	rate
Australia	**129.9**	**12.2**
Canada	934.5	13.8
France	362.6	16.9
Great Britain	555.8	8.2
Greece	282.0	17.4
Italy	423.9	13.2
Japan	652.7	8.9
Malaysia	141.8	23.8
New Zealand	489.4	18.9
Sweden	208.7	7.2
USA	1 353.9	16.3

(a) Population at 31 December.
(b) Refers to deaths occurring within 30 days of the accident except for the following countries: France—deaths within 6 days; Italy—deaths within 7 days; Japan—deaths within 24 hours.

Source: International Road Federation *World Road Statistics, 1990–1994*

speed, driver fatigue, car failure, illegal overtaking and dangerous manoeuvring.

In 1993, of all drivers, motor cyclists, pedestrians and bicyclists who were killed or injured in a road crash, blood alcohol concentration (BAC) was known for 74% of fatalities and 50% of hospitalisations. Of these, 29% of fatalities and 22% of people hospitalised had a blood alcohol concentration (BAC) of 0.05 or more.

It is difficult to obtain data on the number of road crashes involving excessive speed, but data are available on the speed limit where the crash occurred. In 1993, 58% of all accidents involving fatalities or

Proportion of people(a) with a blood alcohol concentration of 0.05(b) or more, 1993

Type of road user	Fatalities	Hospitalisations
	%	%
Pedestrian	31.4	27.8
Driver	29.4	22.4
Motorcyclist	30.7	16.5
Bicyclist	0.0	11.7
Total	**29.3**	**21.6**

(a) Refers to the proportion of drivers, motorcyclists, pedestrians and bicyclists who died or were hospitalised due to a motor vehicle traffic accident and whose blood alcohol concentration (BAC) was known.
(b) BAC refers to grams of alcohol per millilitre of blood. In Australia, it is illegal to drive with a BAC of 0.05 or more.

Source: Federal Office of Road Safety *Serious Injury Database: 1993 Tabulations*

hospitalisations were in areas where the speed limit was 60 kilometres per hour. However, it should be noted that at any time most motor vehicles are travelling in areas with this speed limit.

Fewer vehicles travel in areas with a speed limit of 100 kilometres or more per hour. Therefore, crashes occurring in these areas probably account for a disproportionately high number of all crashes. In 1993, 29% of crashes occurred in areas with this speed limit. Fatal crashes were more likely than hospitalisation crashes to occur in areas with a high speed limit, 47% compared to 28%.

There are differences between male and female drivers in the causes of road crashes. A Federal Office of Road Safety study found that in 1990 fatal crashes caused by male drivers were much more likely to involve alcohol or excessive speed than those caused by female drivers[3].

Extent of injury

The extent of injury a person experiences varies according to whether they used safety devices such as a car seat belt or wearing a helmet if riding a motor cycle. In 1993, where seat belt and helmet use were known, 9% of people who were hospitalised as a result of a car accident had not been wearing a seat belt, and 9% who were hospitalised as a result of a motor cycle accident had not worn a helmet. Among fatalities, the proportions were much higher. 33% of fatalities had not been wearing a seat belt, and 15% had not been wearing a

Speed limit at crash site, 1993

Speed limit(a)	Fatal crashes	Hospitalisation crashes	All crashes
	%	%	%
60 or below	39.3	60.3	58.3
70	3.1	3.5	3.5
75	1.6	2.1	2.0
80	7.0	5.5	5.6
90	1.6	1.1	1.1
100 or above	47.4	27.6	29.5
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**

(a) Refers to the speed limit in kilometres per hour.

Source: Federal Office of Road Safety *Serious Injury Database: 1993 Tabulations*

helmet. This suggests that in accidents of a given severity, people may be killed rather than hospitalised due to not wearing a seat belt or helmet.

There are differences between men and women in the extent of injury suffered in road crashes. Overall, women may be less likely to be fatally injured than men because they are less likely to be speeding and more likely to be wearing a seat belt. However, the Federal Office of Road Safety study found that, in crashes at a given speed, women are likely to suffer more severe injuries than men. This is considered to be because they have a greater physical vulnerability and they have a tendency to drive smaller cars[3].

Endnotes

1 Federal Office of Road Safety (1992) *The national road safety strategy* Canberra.

2 *Time Use Survey* (unpublished data).

3 Federal Office of Road Safety (1994) *A comparison of fatal crashes involving male and female car drivers* AGPS, Canberra.

International

Caution

Statistics presented in this chapter have been reproduced from international statistical compendia. National statistical systems differ from country to country and therefore caution should be exercised when comparing international data. Details of national differences can be found in the country notes in the source publications.

Population composition

Country	Reference year	Total population	0–14 years	15–64 years	65 years and over
		'000	%	%	%
Australia	**1993**	**17 843**	**21.7**	**66.8**	**11.5**
Canada	1993	27 755	20.8	67.3	11.9
China	1993	1 205 181	27.3	66.7	6.0
France	1993	57 379	20.0	65.5	14.5
Greece	1993	10 208	18.1	67.2	14.7
Hong Kong	1993	5 845	19.7	70.7	9.6
Indonesia	1993	194 617	34.2	61.6	4.2
Italy	1993	57 826	16.0	69.0	15.0
Japan	1993	124 959	17.3	69.7	13.0
Korea (Republic of)	1993	44 508	24.1	70.8	5.1
Malaysia	1993	19 239	38.2	58.0	3.8
New Zealand	1993	3 487	22.9	66.0	11.0
Papua New Guinea	1993	4 149	40.0	57.4	2.6
Singapore	1993	2 798	22.7	71.2	6.1
Sweden	1993	8 692	18.4	64.1	17.6
UK	1993	57 826	19.4	64.9	15.6
USA	1993	257 840	21.8	65.6	12.7
Viet Nam	1993	70 902	37.6	57.6	4.8

Source: World Health Organisation (1994) *World Health Statistics Annual 1993*

Population growth

Country	Reference year	Annual average growth rate	Reference year	Annual rate of natural increase(a)	Crude birth rate(a)	Crude death rate(a)	Reference year	Total fertility rate
		%		no.	no.	no.		no.
Australia	**1990–93**	**1.1**	**1992**	**r8.0**	**15.1**	**7.1**	**1992**	**1.9**
Canada	1990–93	2.6	1991	r7.7	r14.6	r7.0	1990	1.8
China	1990–93	1.2	1990–95	11.3	18.5	7.2	1990–95	2.0
France	1990–93	0.4	1992	3.8	r13.0	9.1	1991	1.8
Greece	1990–93	0.7	1993	0.5	9.9	9.4	1992	1.4
Hong Kong	1990–93	1.2	1992	7.0	12.2	5.3	1992	1.3
Indonesia	1990–93	1.7	1990–95	16.4	24.7	8.4	1990–95	2.9
Italy	1990–93	-0.4	1993	-0.1	9.4	9.5	1992	1.2
Japan	1990–93	0.0	1993	2.5	9.6	7.1	1992	1.5
Korea (Republic of)	1990–93	0.9	1992	10.9	16.3	5.4	1990	1.7
Malaysia	1990–93	2.7	1990–95	23.6	28.7	5.1	1990–95	3.6
New Zealand	1990–93	0.9	1993	9.2	17.1	7.9	1992	2.1
Papua New Guinea	1990–93	2.0	1990–95	22.7	33.4	10.7	1990–95	5.0
Singapore	1990–93	2.0	1993	12.4	17.5	5.0	1993	1.8
Sweden	1990–93	0.6	1992	3.2	14.2	10.9	1992	2.1
UK	1990–93	0.4	1992	2.5	13.5	10.9	1992	1.8
USA	1990–93	1.1	1993	6.9	15.6	8.8	1991	2.1
Viet Nam	1990–93	2.5	1990–95	22.7	30.7	8.0	1990–95	3.9

(a) Per 1,000 population.

Source: United Nations (1995) *1993 Demographic Yearbook*

Population projections

Country	Population			Median age			0–14 years			65 years and over		
	2000	2020	2050	2000	2020	2050	2000	2020	2050	2000	2020	2050
	million	million	million	years	years	years	%	%	%	%	%	%
Australia(a)	**r19.2**	**23.6**	**26.1**	**r35.0**	**38.8**	**41.3**	**r21.0**	**19.3**	**18.3**	**r11.7**	**15.7**	**22.4**
Canada	r31.0	36.9	39.9	r36.3	39.3	40.8	r20.6	19.2	18.5	r12.2	16.8	21.7
China	r1 284.6	1 488.1	1 606.0	r29.9	35.9	39.2	r25.3	20.7	19.3	r6.7	10.5	18.2
France	r59.0	61.0	60.5	r37.5	42.1	42.8	r18.8	17.2	17.6	r15.7	19.7	24.5
Greece	r10.6	10.1	8.6	r39.6	46.0	49.2	r15.0	13.7	14.7	r18.0	22.2	31.4
Hong Kong	r6.0	6.0	4.9	r37.2	46.9	53.0	r16.5	12.7	12.9	r11.7	19.3	34.5
Indonesia	r212.7	264.1	318.8	24.7	31.4	37.7	r30.8	23.6	20.1	r4.7	7.0	15.7
Italy	r57.3	53.6	43.6	r39.8	48.3	52.0	r14.6	12.1	13.2	r17.6	23.2	34.2
Japan	r126.5	124.0	110.0	r40.7	46.3	47.4	r15.3	14.2	15.7	r16.4	25.2	30.2
Korea (Republic of)	r47.1	53.3	56.5	r31.2	38.5	40.6	r22.2	19.2	18.5	r6.6	11.5	21.1
Malaysia	r22.3	29.8	38.1	22.5	29.6	37.8	35.2	24.7	19.8	4.1	7.0	15.0
New Zealand	3.8	4.3	4.7	r33.2	37.3	40.2	23.4	20.0	18.7	r11.2	15.0	20.3
Papua New Guinea	r4.8	7.0	9.6	r20.5	24.2	34.1	r38.7	32.0	22.4	r3.0	4.0	9.7
Singapore	3.0	3.3	3.3	34.8	41.4	42.9	21.6	17.2	17.5	r7.6	16.0	23.7
Sweden	9.0	9.6	10.0	r38.7	40.9	41.6	r19.9	18.1	18.0	16.7	20.7	22.3
UK	r59.0	60.9	61.6	r37.1	41.1	41.6	r19.5	17.8	18.1	r15.3	18.0	22.6
USA	r275.1	320.6	349.0	35.5	38.0	40.3	r21.8	19.8	18.8	r12.4	16.1	20.8
Viet Nam	r82.6	111.7	143.6	r22.1	28.4	37.7	r35.7	25.6	20.1	r5.1	5.6	14.6

(a) United Nations projections for Australia may not agree with ABS projections due to differences in assumptions and methodology.

Source: United Nations (1995) *World Population Prospects : The 1994 Revision*

Health status

Country	Reference year	Infant mortality rate(a)	Reference year	Life expectancy at birth	
				Males	Females
		no.		years	years
Australia	**1992**	**7.0**	**1992**	**74.5**	**80.4**
Canada	1990	6.8	1985–87	73.0	79.8
China	1990–95	44.5	1990–95	66.7	70.5
France	1991	7.3	1991	72.9	81.1
Greece	1993	8.5	1980	72.2	76.4
Hong Kong	1992	4.8	1992	74.8	80.5
Indonesia	1990–95	58.1	1990–95	61.0	64.5
Italy	1993	7.4	1989	73.5	80.0
Japan	1992	4.5	1992	76.1	82.2
Korea (Republic of)	1992	3.0	1989	66.9	75.0
Malaysia	1990–95	13.0	1990–95	68.7	73.0
New Zealand	1993	7.2	1990–92	72.9	78.7
Papua New Guinea	1990–95	68.3	1990–95	55.2	56.7
Singapore	1993	4.7	1992	73.7	78.3
Sweden	1993	4.8	1992	75.4	80.8
UK	1992	6.6	1992	73.5	79.1
USA	1992	8.4	1991	72.0	78.9
Viet Nam	1990–95	42.0	1979	63.7	67.9

(a) Per 1,000 live births.

Source: United Nations (1995) *1993 Demographic Yearbook*

Standardised death rates(a) for selected causes of death

Country	Reference year	Malignant neoplasms (cancer)	Ischaemic heart disease	Cerebro-vascular disease (stroke)	Motor vehicle traffic accidents	Suicide and self-inflicted injury(b)	All causes
		no.	no.	no.	no.	no.	no.
Australia	**1992**	**125.3**	**105.5**	**37.4**	**10.7**	**11.3**	**454.4**
Canada	1992	130.5	89.1	27.0	10.8	11.4	438.9
China	. .	na	na	na	na	na	na
France	1992	134.8	35.8	29.5	14.0	15.4	440.9
Greece	1993	108.7	57.0	66.9	16.7	3.0	452.6
Hong Kong	1993	130.3	40.7	42.0	4.5	8.5	412.3
Indonesia	. .	na	na	na	na	na	na
Italy	1991	137.1	58.0	51.7	14.1	5.5	475.9
Japan	1993	106.1	20.2	45.8	9.3	12.0	377.8
Korea (Republic of)	. .	na	na	na	na	na	na
Malaysia	. .	na	na	na	na	na	na
New Zealand	1992	141.1	127.5	44.1	18.0	13.4	522.6
Papua New Guinea	. .	na	na	na	na	na	na
Singapore	1992	131.7	103.4	62.9	8.1	9.3	532.5
Sweden	1992	109.3	103.8	38.5	6.8	11.9	435.4
UK	. .	na	na	na	na	na	na
USA	1991	133.5	103.8	28.6	15.8	10.5	529.1
Viet Nam	. .	na	na	na	na	na	na

(a) Standardised death rates are the overall death rates per 100,000 population that would have prevailed in a standard population if it had experienced at each age the death rates of the population being studied. The standard population used in this table is the World Health Organisation world standard population. The figures in this table differ from those in the previous two editions due to the use of a different standard population. Standardised death rates for Australia presented in the Health chapter of this publication or elsewhere in ABS publications are not comparable due the use of a different standard population and different reference periods.

(b) It is generally acknowledged that suicides are under-reported as a cause of death. The degree of under-reporting varies from country to country, partly for social and cultural reasons, but also because of differences in legal requirements and administrative procedures in arriving at a verdict of suicide.

Source: World Health Organisation (1995) *World Health Statistics Annual 1994*

Health services and expenditure

Country	Reference year	Health expenditure as % of GDP	Health expenditure per capita at PPP(a)	Reference year	Doctors per 1,000 population	Reference year	Acute hospital beds per 1,000 population
		%	$US '000		no.		no.
Australia	**1992**	**7.9**	**1.3**	**1991**	**2.3**	**1992**	**4.5**
Canada	1992	10.8	2.1	1991	2.2	1989	5.0
China	. .	na	na	. .	na	. .	na
France	1992	9.4	1.7	1991	2.7	1990	5.2
Greece	1992	5.4	0.3	1990	3.4	. .	na
Hong Kong	. .	na	na	. .	na	. .	na
Indonesia	. .	na	na	. .	na	. .	na
Italy	1992	8.5	1.5	1989	1.3	. .	na
Japan	1992	7.0	1.4	1990	1.6	. .	na
Korea (Republic of)	. .	na	na	. .	na	. .	na
Malaysia	. .	na	na	. .	na	. .	na
New Zealand	1992	7.7	1.1	1989	1.9	. .	na
Papua New Guinea	. .	na	na	. .	na	. .	na
Singapore	. .	na	na	. .	na	. .	na
Sweden	1992	7.9	1.3	1991	2.9	1990	3.9
UK	1992	7.1	1.2	1990	1.4	1986	2.8
USA	1992	14.0	3.2	1990	2.3	1991	3.5
Viet Nam	. .	na	na	. .	na	. .	na

(a) PPP (purchasing power parities) are the rates of currency conversion which eliminate the differences in price levels between countries.

Source: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (1993) *OECD Health Systems: facts and trends 1960-1991*

Labour force

Country	Reference year	Economically active population(a)	Participation rate of persons aged 15 and over		
			Persons	Men	Women(b)
		'000	%	%	%
Australia	**1994**	**8 776.3**	**63.0**	**73.7**	**52.7**
Canada	1994	14 832.0	65.3	73.3	57.6
China	. .	na	na	na	na
France	1994	25 870.4	54.9	62.8	47.6
Greece	1993	4 112.4	49.2	64.6	35.2
Hong Kong	1994	2 972.4	62.5	77.6	47.1
Indonesia	1992	79 451.4	56.6	70.9	42.7
Italy	1994	22 680.0	47.4	62.1	33.7
Japan	1993	66 140.0	63.8	78.0	50.3
Korea (Republic of)	1994	20 326.0	61.7	76.4	47.9
Malaysia	1991	6 118.6	55.0	74.8	35.1
New Zealand	1994	1 697.8	64.2	73.7	55.0
Papua New Guinea	. .	na	na	na	na
Singapore	1994	1 693.1	64.9	79.6	50.9
Sweden	1994	4 266.0	77.6	79.4	75.8
UK	1993	28 271.0	62.4	72.7	52.8
USA	1994	131 056.0	66.1	74.7	58.2
Viet Nam	. .	na	na	na	na

(a) For most countries the economically active populations are aged 15 and over. However, the age range varies for some countries: Greece and Italy — 14 and over; Indonesia — 10 and over; Malaysia — 10 and over; Sweden — 16-64; UK, USA — 16 and over. Definitions also vary in terms of the inclusion or exclusion of certain other segments of the population such as the armed forces.

(b) Activity rates for women are frequently not comparable internationally since, in many countries, relatively large numbers of women assist on farms or in other family enterprises without pay. There are differences between countries in the criteria used to count economically active workers.

Source: International Labour Office (1995) *Year Book of Labour Statistics*

Employment and unemployment(a)

Country	Reference year	Employment	Reference year	Unemployment	Unemployment rate
		'000		'000	%
Australia	**1994**	**7 921**	**1994**	**856**	**9.8**
Canada	1994	13 292	1994	1 541	10.4
China	1994	614 690	1994	4 764	2.8
France	1994	22 110	1994	3 164	12.5
Greece	1993	3 720	1993	398	9.7
Hong Kong	1994	2 915	1994	57	1.9
Indonesia	1992	78 104	1992	2 199	na
Italy	1994	20 002	1994	2 678	11.3
Japan	1993	64 500	1993	1 660	2.5
Korea (Republic of)	1994	19 837	1994	r489	r2.4
Malaysia	1993	7 383	1993	36	na
New Zealand	1994	1 560	1994	138	8.2
Papua New Guinea	. .	na	. .	na	na
Singapore	1994	1 649	1994	44	2.6
Sweden	1994	3 926	1994	332	8.8
UK	1993	r25 317	1993	2 891	10.2
USA	1994	123 060	1994	7 996	6.1
Viet Nam	. .	na	. .	na	na

(a) For most countries the employed and unemployed populations are aged 15 and over. However, the age range varies for some countries: China — all ages; Greece and Italy — 14 and over; Indonesia — 10 and over; Malaysia (employed only) — 15–64; Sweden — 16–64; UK and USA — 16 and over. Definitions also vary in terms of the inclusion or exclusion of certain other segments of the population such as the armed forces.

Source: International Labour Office (1995) *Year Book of Labour Statistics*

Cumulative index 1994–1996

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